

APPENDIX

TO THE LONDON MAGAZINE:

MDCCLIX.

The History of the last Session of Parliament, &c.

The History of the Session of Parliament, which began Nov. 23, 1758, with an Account of all the material Questions therein determined, and of the political Disputes thereby occasioned without Doors. Continued from p. 646.



JANUARY, 29th, 1759, there was presented to the house and read, a petition of several other sheriffs, whose names were thereunto subscribed, to the same purpose with the two former, which

lunatick; alledging, that if the said bill, as then framed, should pass into a law, it would deprive the said lunatick, and his successors, of an antient fee belonging to his said office, which he and his predecessors had received, on searches made in the said office for post-fines, by the undersheriffs of the several counties, and might be otherwise prejudicial to the said office; and therefore praying, that such provision might be made in the bill, for saving the estate and interest of the said lunatick in the said office, as the house should think proper.

This petition was referred to the committee upon the bill, and then it was resolved, that the foreign apposer*, or other proper officer or officers of the Exchequer, should lay before the house, a list of the names of all and every lord or lords of liberties, proprietors or grantees under the crown, of post-fines on writs of covenant, sued out for the passing of fines in the court of Common-Pleas, together with a list of the several hundreds, liberties, and districts, for which they and every of them so claim. And it was ordered, that the said officer or officers should lay before the house, an account of all and every sum and

was ordered to lie upon the table, until the said bill should be brought in; and on the 26th of February, Sir Richard Lloyd presented the bill to the house, being intitled, *A Bill for the more regular and easy collecting, accounting for, and paying of, Post-Fines, which shall be due to the Crown, to the Grantees thereof under the Crown, and for the Ease of Sheriffs in respect to the same*; when it was read a first time, and ordered to be read a second time. March 5th, it was read a second time, and committed to a committee of the whole house for the 10th of March; but on the 14th, there was presented to the house and read, a petition of William Daw, the younger, and Maximilian Daw, committees of the person and estate of William Daw, the clerk of the king's silver office, a

* This officer examines the sheriffs accounts of post-fines, and several other sorts of accidental revenue. He is so call'd from the old English word, To appose, signifying, To examine.

and sums of money, allowed by him, or them, to such respective lords of hundreds, liberties, and districts, proprietors, or grantees under the crown, for their several post-fines for seven years, ending at Michaelmas, 1758, distinguishing each year, together with an account of the fees claimed and taken by the said foreign apposer, and other officers, and each of them, in obtaining the respective quietus's * for such post-fines.

In pursuance of this resolution and order, several lists and accounts were presented to the house; and on the 20th, there was presented to the house and read, a petition of Joseph Stonynought, register and keeper of the records of fines, in the chirographer's office; recommending his office as the proper place where post-fines ought to be made payable, and praying accordingly; which petition was referred to the committee upon the bill; and the house having the same day resolved itself into the said committee, went through the bill with several amendments, and ordered the report to be received on the 23d; but this order being put off until the 26th, there was on that day presented to the house and read, a petition of Nathaniel Rows, Esq; clerk of the warrants, inrollments, and estreats, in the court of Common-Pleas; recommending his office as the proper place for the afore-said purpose; and representing, that if the post-fines were made payable before bringing to his office the roll on which the fine is ingrossed, it might deprive him of great part of the profits of his said office; and therefore praying, that such post-fines might be appointed to be paid at his office, or that otherwise such provision might be made in the bill, for saving his estate in his said office, as the house should think proper.

This petition was ordered to lie on the table, until the said report should be taken into consideration; which it presently was; and after several of the amendments made by the committee had been agreed to, a motion was made for recommitting the bill, but the question being carried in the negative, the other amendments, with an amendment to one of them, were agreed to, and several clauses were added by the house to the bill, after which it was ordered to be ingrossed; and on the 29th, it was read a third time, passed, and sent to the lords, by whom it was passed with-

out any amendment, and on the 2d of June it received the royal assent.

In the preamble of this act, several of the difficulties to which sheriffs were exposed in the collecting of these post-fines are recited, therefore it is enacted, That from and after the first day of Trinity-term, 1759, the officer whose duty it is to set and indorse the præ-fine, shall also at the same time set the usual post-fine, and indorse the same on the back of the writ, together with his name or mark of office; the said post-fine to be forthwith paid to the receiver of præ-fines at the alienation office, who is to indorse upon the back of every writ, a certain mark of office, together with his name, and the sum received as the post-fine due thereon, which shall discharge the estate comprised in the writ, and the cognizees † therein. And until this be done, no fine is to be deemed valid and effectual.

And because no præ-fine has ever been payable for estates of under five marks a year, but as a post-fine of 6s. 8d. has always been payable, even for such small estates, when conveyed by fine, therefore, by another clause it is enacted, That the officer at the alienation office, whose duty it is to set and indorse the præ-fine, shall set on every writ of covenant brought to that office, on which no præ-fine shall be payable, a post-fine of 6s. 8d. and shall indorse such post-fine thereon, together with his name and mark of office; the said post-fine to be paid to the receiver of that office, before the writ be passed there; and on payment thereof, the receiver shall indorse on, and mark the writ, as before directed.

There are likewise proper clauses for obliging the receiver at the alienation office to give good security; for enforcing his attendance at proper hours; for obliging him to account and pay the post-fines to the several persons having a right thereunto; and for making it felony without benefit of clergy, to counterfeite his mark or hand; but no clause relating to any of the above-mentioned petitions that were presented to the house by the officers concerned in the passing or levying of fines. These petitions, however, show how difficult it is to introduce a reformation into any branch of the practice of the law; for in every branch there are a number of officers concerned, all of whom have obtained their respective offices by a

* Quietus is the Exchequer word for the sheriff's discharge on release, after his account has been examined and passed. † Cognizee is the layo term for the buyer or grantee of the estate, in whose favour the fine is levied, and consequently is the plaintiff in the writ of covenant.

very long attendance, or have purchased them at a very high price; and as almost every such reformation must lessen, perhaps annihilate the profits of some of these offices, it must be attended with a hardship upon some of the officers concerned; for when a gentleman has passed the whole of his youth, in obtaining and executing an office in the law, or has laid out the whole, or the greatest part of his fortune, in the purchase of it, and has thereby got a comfortable subsistence for life, according to the then law or custom, it is certainly a great hardship to lessen, much more to annihilate, the profits of that office, even for the publick good, without giving him a suitable recompence. This is a great discouragement for any gentleman who has the honour of a seat in our legislature, to attempt a reformation in any branch of the practice of the law, because, if he succeeds, he may probably bring a hardship upon some of the officers concerned, perhaps some of his own acquaintance, and is not sure of being able to provide for them a suitable recompence; and even when no such hardship is with any real foundation to be apprehended, yet from the imaginary fears of some, he is sure to meet with opposition, which was the case with respect to the reformation intended by this law.

December the 20th, A committee was appointed, to enquire what laws were expired, or near expiring, and to report their opinion to the house, which of them were fit to be revived or continued; and the said committee having on the 15th of March been revived, Mr. Alderman Dickinson the next day reported the ten resolutions they had come to, the four last of which were then agreed to, and a bill or bills ordered to be prepared and brought in, pursuant thereto, by the said alderman, Mr. Bacon, Mr. Robert Jones, Mr. Harbord, and Mr. Thomas Coventry, to whom several instructions were afterwards ordered, for adding clauses to one or other of these bills; and the six first having been referred to the committee of ways and means, five of them were, upon report from that committee on the 14th of April, agreed to by the house, and a bill or bills ordered to be prepared and brought in by the said alderman, Mr. Olmsted, Mr. Bacon, and Mr. Charlton, with instructions ordered, either before or after the bill was brought in. But as to the act of the 5th of his present majesty's reign, for the further encouraging and regulating the manufacture of British sail-cloth, &c. which was recommended by the 5th reso-

lution of the expiring laws committee, it was not, it seems, thought necessary to be continued, as the most useful parts of it had been provided for by the act of the 19th of his present majesty's reign, for the more effectual securing the duties now payable on foreign made sail cloth, &c. which was recommended by the next following resolution of the said committee, and was agreed to by the house.

In consequence of the resolutions thus agreed to, the following bills were brought in and passed into laws, viz. *An Act for regulating the Lestage and Ballastage of the River Thames, &c.* *An Act for continuing the Laws, relating to the Punishment of Persons going armed or disguised, &c.* *An Act for continuing several Laws near expiring.* *An Act concerning the Admeasurement of Coals, &c.* And *An Act for the Relief of Debtors, with respect to the Imprisonment of their Persons, &c.* None of which, but the last, require any particular notice. As to the last, it was made almost quite a new act; for there were alterations, amendments, or additions, in every part of it, a recapitulation of which, would appear tedious to those that are no way concerned, and as to those that are, of whom, I am sorry to say, there are always too many amongst us, they must have recourse to the act itself; in which the two chief amendments, or rather additions, are, 1st. That where more creditors than one shall charge any prisoner in execution, and shall desire to have him detained in prison, they shall only respectively pay him each such weekly sum, not exceeding 1s. 6d. a week, as the court, at the time of his being remanded, shall direct. And, 2d. That if any prisoner described by the act shall remain in prison three months after being committed, any creditor may compel him to give into court, upon oath, an account of his real and personal estate, to be disposed of for the benefit of his creditors, consenting to his being discharged.

This act, so far as it extends, is certainly a just and humane law, especially if the debtor be such a one as has become insolvent by misfortunes or disappointments; but why it should be confined to those prisoners only, who are not charged in execution with any debt exceeding 100l. is what, I believe, no man can give a tolerable reason for. Surely, a man who through misfortunes or disappointments falls, from affluent circumstances and extensive credit, into the utmost misery, and want, is more to be pitied than a man who never knew such circumstances, nor

ever had credit enough to contract a debt of above 100*l.* yet by this law the latter is to be discharged, or maintained in prison by his creditors, whereas the former must starve in prison if, among his other misfortunes, he has met with that now terrible one of owing above 100*l.* to a revengeful relentless, and merciless creditor. For this cruel and amazing difference no reason can be assigned but a partiality to the rich, so observable in many parts of our law, and which I shall never miss taking notice of as often as it falls in my way. A man who has been in affluent circumstances and extensive credit, and has become insolvent, has probably several rich men among his creditors: They must by law be indulged with a privilege to rack the utmost of their endless revenge upon the unhappy object, let his case be never so much to be pitied, let the injury they have suffered be in their circumstances never so little sensible, at least to any sense but that of their avarice. But a man who has always been in such low circumstances as never to have had credit from any one person for above 100*l.* has very seldom any rich man among his creditors, therefore if he becomes insolvent none of his creditors are by law indulged the privilege of revenging themselves by detaining him in jail, unless they maintain him whilst they hold him there, and this let their revenge be never so just, let the injury they have suffered be never so ruinous.

Suppose an honest tradesman or shop-keeper has been prevailed on, by the fair speeches and false tho' plausible pretences of a sharper, to let him have goods upon credit to the value of 80 or 90*l.* which the sharper sells for half price, and spends the money in the utmost extravagance, shall such a tradesman be obliged to discharge such a sharper from prison, because by that very fraud he has been reduced to such low circumstances as not to be able to afford him a groat a day for his maintenance in jail? Suppose again that a merchant in affluent circumstances and good credit, has such a run of losses, by shipwreck and the bankruptcy of his insurers, as to render him unable to pay all his just debts; and suppose that a rich man, his creditor, to whom perhaps he owes near as much as he does to all the rest, should come to him with this speech; my good friend, I can see that by your late losses you must be so reduced as not to be able to pay all you owe; but I know that you have a large quantity of goods in your warehouses, sufficient to pay what you owe to me, and have not as yet committed any act of

bankruptcy, now if you'll deliver those goods to me, I will give you a release, and I will contrive to get you freed from all your other creditors by a statute of bankruptcy. To this the other honestly answers, 'tis true, Sir, I am not now able to pay any thing like 20*s.* in the pound, but since it is so, my creditors shall all fare alike, I will call a meeting of them, and they shall divide what I have proportionably among them. To which the rich oppressor replies, if you are such a fool, Sir, I will take care, you shall meet them nowhere but in jail: Then goes directly, arrests the honest merchant, judgment and execution must soon follow, and in jail he must remain all the days of his life, without so much as a groat a day for his subsistence in prison, or any thing but charity and the jail allowance. He cannot obtain his discharge by a statute of bankruptcy; because he cannot have the consent of four fifths of his creditors in number and value: He cannot be discharged or obtain any subsistence by an act of insolvency, because a statute of bankruptcy was taken out against him, perhaps at the instigation of this rich oppressor, in order to bar him of this relief: And he cannot be discharged or obtain any subsistence by the act now under consideration, because he is charged in execution with a debt of more than 100*l.* to one person.

A multitude of such cases may be supposed: Some such do actually happen almost every day, as must be known to every man who has been much conversant in the low or middling state of mankind. But it may be said, that a man who runs in debt only for the support of his idleness or extravagance deserves to be punished, and imprisonment is the punishment which the law justly inflicts upon such criminals. That such debtors ought to be punished I shall readily admit; but that perpetual imprisonment without any subsistence but the jail allowance, is a just or political punishment, even for the most heinous of such criminals, I cannot allow; nor does the world think so, as we may judge from the many charties given to such prisoners, and which this very law deems to be such by recommending the care of them to the commissioners for charitable uses; for it can be no charity to free or deliver a criminal from a punishment which the law has justly inflicted upon him for his crime.

With me, therefore, the world must think that perpetual imprisonment, without any subsistence but the jail allowance, is a punishment too severe even for the most criminal debtor. It is in effect a capital punishment:

punishment: It is worse: It is inflicting a tormenting and lingering death; for considering the treatment such an unfortunate wretch must meet with from jailers and their underlings, it would be impossible for him to live long if he had no other relief; and if his strength of body and patience of mind should prolong his life more than usual, it would only be a prolonging of torment. The laudable lenity of our laws admits of no torture in any other case whatever. A robber, a murderer shall be put to death, in a way which does not give him a moment's pain; but an insolvent debtor shall be exposed to the torments of hunger and cold, and the insults of jailers servants, till he happily expires under the torture. This is the punishment the law inflicts; for if he meets with any relief from charity or friendship, it is what is not provided for him by law; and is this a punishment duly proportioned even to insolvency by extravagance, a crime which men are never led into but by their youth, their vanity, or their luxurious appetites, which is rather a degree of madness than a malicious crime, and consequently is rather to be pitied than punished.

It being thus evident, that imprisonment without any subsistence but the jail allowance, is a punishment too severe for any sort of insolvency not amounting to the fraudulent, which may, or at least ought to be punished by indictment and the pillory: This, I say, being the case as to all insolvents who owe above 100l. to one person, it may be said in excuse for the law, that it does not inflict that sort of punishment, but only gives a power to the creditor to inflict that sort of punishment if he thinks proper; and the creditor is the best judge what sort of punishment is adequate to the injury he has suffered. But is not this directly contrary to one of the chief ends for which mankind have formed themselves into societies. One of these chief ends is, that it may not be left in any man's power to inflict whatever punishment he thinks proper upon the injury he has received; but that the proportioning of the punishment to the crime, may in all cases be determined by the legislative or the judicative power of the society. If it were otherwise: If it should be left in every man's power to inflict whatever punishment he pleased upon every injury he receives, the society could not long subsist; for the punishment would be generally too severe, which would be an injury to the person punished, and consequently would give him or his friends a

right to punish in their turn. The legislative power of the society may therefore leave it in the power of every man to forgive, so far as the public safety or interest is not concerned; but it is both impolitic and unjust in the legislative power of any society to leave it, in any case, in the power of the person injured to inflict too severe a punishment, and to protect, and even to assist him, in inflicting such a sort of punishment.

Lastly it may be said, that as there are certainly many bankrupts or insolvents who deserve to be punished, and as no legal method can be found for making a distinction between those that ought to be punished and those that ought to be pitied, the law is obliged to leave this distinction to be made by the creditors themselves. If this were true, that no such legal method could be found, it might be an excuse for leaving this distinction to be made by all the creditors jointly, or the majority of them, but it can be no excuse for leaving it in the power of all the creditors jointly, or the majority of them, to inflict too severe a punishment; much less can it be an excuse for leaving it in the power of any one creditor to inflict such a punishment, or any punishment, contrary to the opinion and the desire of all the rest; for in making this distinction the quantity of a man's debt can have no manner of concern: It ought to be founded entirely upon the general character of the debtor, and upon the causes of his misfortunes, of which a creditor to whom he owes but 10l. may be as good, perhaps a better judge than the creditor to whom he owes 100 or 1000l. and the former has certainly the best chance for being impartial; therefore it is ridiculous to oblige a bankrupt to have the consent of four fifths of his creditors in value as well as number, before he can obtain his discharge, and that without leaving it in the power of the court to enquire into, or judge of the reasons why a rich creditor refuses his consent.

But if the making of this distinction is by law to be left to the creditors in all cases where the debtor owes above 100l. to any one man, why is it taken from them in all cases where the debtor is not charged in execution with any debt above that sum? In all such cases the making of this distinction is not only taken from the creditors, but the law itself makes no such distinction. Let an insolvent debtor have been never so extravagant: Let him even have contracted some of his debts in a fraudulent manner, in order to support his

his extravagance, yet upon his petitioning, and giving a true account of his estate; or declaring upon oath that he has no estate, his creditors must discharge him, or allow him a great a day; and if the trade or business he was bred to be such as may be exercised in jail, or within the rules of a prison, his continuing in jail is really an advantage to him, because he may earn as much by his labour as if he were at large, and he has the addition of a great a day from his creditors. On the other hand, let a man's insolvency have been owing to the most extraordinary, the most unavoidable misfortune; let his character be so good, that no creditor who did not owe him a grudge upon some other account, would give him any trouble; but trust to his paying them if ever a change of fortune should enable him to do so; yet let such a man have the additional misfortune of having amongst his creditors a rich man who under values the small expense of a great a day, and who owed him a grudge, perhaps for having refused at his desire to be guilty of some dishonest or dishonourable action. I say let this be the case of the most honest and most unfortunate debtor, he must remain in jail during life, if his rich and revengeful creditor happens to survive him, which in such circumstances he probably may; yet this would be his unhappy, his undeserved condition, even by the otherwise compassionate law now under consideration; and if he had been bred to no trade or business which could be exercised in jail, or within the rules of a prison, he would be utterly miserable, for he could not provide himself, much less his family, in the cheapest sort of food and raiment upon a great a day.

Is there any reason for the legislature's allowing, or rather enacting that this shall be the wretched condition of any unfortunate but innocent subject? Surely, it cannot in a trading country be thought, that no insolvent can be innocent. I have said, enacting; for it has been enacted, ever since imprisonment for debt was instituted upon the body of our ancient laws. Is it consistent with common sense for any society to multiply by law the objects of charity within the boundaries of its government? In this there could neither be sense nor reason, even supposing it impossible to distinguish between the unfortunate and the extravagant or fraudulent insolvent. But that excellent method originally established by our law, of trying the truth of every fact by the verdict of a jury of honest and disinterested neighbours, daily

points out to us the proper and the justest method for making this distinction; and nothing could have prevented our having long since had recourse to it, but a partiality towards the rich, and the too prevalent influence of party-fogging lawyers, and of those who share in the cruel profits of our prisons.

Imprisonment by way of punishment is of all other sorts of punishment the most ridiculous, because to a poor man who has nothing but the jail allowance for his support, it is too severe a punishment for any of those crimes for which it alone is usually inflicted; and to a man who has sufficient for supporting him in jail, especially if he has sufficient for purchasing what is called the liberty of the rules, and if his imprisonment does not interrupt his carrying on his trade or business, it scarcely deserves the name of a punishment. At most it can be said to be little more than a moderate fine, which, instead of being applied to the public good, is applied to the enriching of the jail-keeper. Therefore a truly unfortunate insolvent or bankrupt, either ought never to be imprisoned, or he ought by law to be dismissed from prison as soon as possible; and for the idle, the extravagant, and the fraudulent, meaning those who are found to be such by the verdict of twelve honest and disinterested neighbours, some other sort of punishment ought to be inflicted.

If men knew that, in case of bankruptcy or insolvency, their character, and the cause of their misfortune would be inquired into by a jury of honest and disinterested neighbours, and their verdict directed, or at least very much influenced by an upright, impartial, and penetrating judge, it would make all men more cautious of plunging into any unnecessary expense, and it would oblige all considerable dealers to keep exact and regular books of account, that in case of any such misfortune, the true causes of it might plainly appear. This would be a plain and salutary law that luxury and extravagance that now so generally prevails, and descends so low, than any other regulation or sumptuary law that can be enacted, and I am certain it would not hurt private credit with honest and fair traders, who ever it might do with usurers; and the number of luxury and extravagance, who are always too ready to credit, and always critical in their payment for the same.

An impartial and succinct HISTORY of the Origin and Progress of the present WAR.
Continued from p. 654.

UPON this occasion, it was said, we ought to consider, that let a man's credit be ever so good, let the security he has to give, be ever so undoubted, yet before he can borrow, he must find people that have money to lend; and, in a general sense, no man can be said to have money to lend, who has already lent it out, either upon publick or private security, because he cannot convert the publick security he has purchased into money, or recover payment on the money he has lent upon a private security, unless he can find one who has money to purchase his stock or publick security, or unless the borrower or debtor upon a private security has money of his own, or can find a person who has an equal sum to lend, or lay out upon the purchase of what he inclines to sell, or perhaps must sell, in order to raise the money demanded. In a general sense, therefore, the whole sum of money in Europe, that is ready to be lent, is not near so large at present as is commonly imagined, because the last peace has continued but a very few years. As in every country there is a number of people who save money yearly, and cannot find an opportunity to lend it, or to lay it out upon a purchase, therefore in time of peace the general sum of money ready to be lent will yearly increase. This makes it so easy at the beginning of a war, for any nation that has good credit to find money to borrow; but if the war continues until it has borrowed all that was saved in time of peace, that is to say, all that was saved and not lent or laid out upon any mortgage, security, or purchase, in time of peace, it can then borrow yearly no larger sum than that which is yearly saved by those who chuse to trust to its security rather than to any other. And if it should endeavour to increase the number of such people, by offering a large premium or very high interest, such a step might bring its credit into question, in which case it would find no subscribers to any new fund, and it would incline to purchase any of the old ones. Thus they said, ought to be well considered before we engage in any continental war, because it may bring us under a necessity to borrow five or six millions yearly, as we did before the end of the last war; and tho' the peace preceeding had continued with very little interruption for near 30 years, yet before the end of the war we found, that by bor-

rowing such large sums of money, we had exhausted all the money of those, who chuse to trust to the security of our funds rather than any other, that is to say, all the money which they had saved during such a long tract of peace, and had not lent or laid out upon any other security; for we may remember how difficult it was for the subscribers to our then last money subscription, to find money to make good their payments; which was one of the chief causes that obliged us to restore, by the peace, the accidental but valuable conquest we had made during the war; and if we again engage in such an expensive continental war, the same cause will probably produce the same effect. Whereas, if we confine ourselves to our own war at sea and in America, though we must borrow a little yearly, yet it is to be hoped, that we shall never, in one year, be obliged to borrow more than is yearly saved by those who chuse to lend their money upon our publick funds rather than upon any other security, and consequently may continue the war until by our superiority at sea we have compelled the French to submit to reasonable terms of peace, without so much as desiring any restitution of what we may have conquered during the war.

These, and such as these, were the arguments made use of by the party which I have called the British party. They appeared in opposition to some words proposed to be inserted in the address at the beginning of the session, as I have before mentioned; and they, with no better effect, continued to oppose every measure that tended to involve this nation in a continental war, for the defence of any dominions not belonging to Great Britain, unless it could with confidence be asserted, that there was good reason to expect our being able to form such a confederacy among the powers of Europe, as, in all human probability, would be sufficient for that purpose, without requiring any greater assistance from this nation, either in money or troops, than we could easily and consistently with a vigorous prosecution of our own war, spare to give. At the same time they declared zealously for exerting the utmost of our national strength in the prosecution of the war by sea and in America; and in order to increase that strength, they, on December 8, 1753, moved, in the house of commons, for its being resolved, that the house would, on

the 18th, resolve itself into a committee of the whole house, to consider of the laws in being, which relate to the militia of this kingdom; which motion was agreed to *nem. con.* but the order was put off until the 21st of January following, when the house resolved *nem. con.* that the laws in being, for regulating the militia, are ineffectual, and ordered likewise *nem. con.* that a bill should be prepared and brought in, For the better ordering of the militia forces, in the several counties of England.

March 12, the bill was accordingly presented to the house, by the Hon. Charles Townshend, Esq; who, to his honour, was one of its chief promoters; and after receiving many amendments in that house, it was, on the tenth of May, passed and sent to the lords; but as several objections were made to it by some of the lords, and as it appeared to them that some amendments would be necessary, which they thought they could not in that session spare time to consider, so maturely as the importance of the subject required, a negative was put upon the motion for passing the bill by 59 to 33.

As to the scheme of this bill, it was, upon the whole, pretty much the same with what has been since passed into a law, therefore I shall at present suspend giving any account of it, and proceed to give an account of what made the bill a great favourite among the people, and shewed that some such bill was absolutely necessary. As the French always will, upon any rupture with this nation, so they began early in this winter to threaten us with an invasion; for which purpose they gave orders for building flat-bottomed boats, and for the march of a great many regiments towards their coasts upon or near to the British channel. But as the people of this kingdom were never more unanimous for the support of our government, nor ever more united against the French, than they were from the very beginning of this war, no one could suppose that the French had formed a design to make a conquest of this kingdom; however, as our coast-towns are all open, and inhabitants were neither provided with arms, nor acquainted with any sort of military discipline, it was apprehended not only that the French might form, but that they might accidentally had an opportunity to execute a design of sending over a body of 3 or 4000 men, in order to plunder some of our towns, and ravage some part of our coast, and to put to sea again, before we could send a sufficient number of our troops to oppose their pro-

gress, or a sufficient squadron to intercept their return.

For this reason his majesty sent orders to Col. Yorke, his minister at the Hague, to demand the 6000 men which the Dutch are by their alliance to furnish, whenever this nation shall be in danger of being invaded. Accordingly, Mr. Yorke, on the 13th of February, presented a memorial to the states general for this purpose; but their high mightinesses were so far from complying with this demand, that they made use of all the methods which they may, when they please, be furnished with, by the constitution of their republic, for delaying to give any answer. The memorial was by the states general transmitted to the states of the several provinces, and by them to the principal cities in each; consequently the states general pretended, they could give no answer to Mr. Yorke till they had an answer from each of the several provinces, and the states of each province pretended, they could give no answer to the states general till they had an answer from each of the principal cities in their province. Thus they delayed giving any answer to his Britannic majesty, in an affair which required an immediate answer; but they made no delay in communicating Mr. Yorke's memorial to M. D'Affry, the French minister at the Hague: for that minister, by orders from his court, presented by way of answer a counter memorial, on the 14th of March, in which his most christian majesty, as usual, charged us with being the aggressors, and threatened, that if they furnished the succour demanded, he would consider it as their taking part in the quarrel, and consequently as an act of hostility.

This counter memorial was of course transmitted to the states of the several provinces, and by them to the principal towns; and at last, on the 22d of April, the answer or resolution of the states of the province of Holland and West-Friesland was presented to the states general, and by them approved of; and towards the end of May or beginning of June, a copy thereof was delivered by them to Mr. Yorke, as their answer to his memorial; as also a copy of the answer they had given to M. D'Affry's counter memorial. This answer would probably have contained a flat denial of their being obliged to comply with this demand, or to fulfil any of the engagements they were under by their treaties of defensive alliance with this nation; but from the dilatory method they took to give an answer, his majesty

they saw their design, and therefore, long before this answer was drawn up by the states of Holland, he ordered Mr. Yorke to declare to her royal highness the princess regent, that he had received orders not to insist upon this demand. This freed them from the inconvenience of giving his majesty a flat denial, and therefore their answer consisted only in representing the difficulties they were under, and in thanking his majesty for freeing them, by this declaration, from the embarrassment into which his demand and the French counter-memorial would have thrown them.

But that their answer would otherwise have contained a flat denial, is evident; for, in their answer to M. D'Ailly, they expressly say, that as they had not taken any part in the troubles or differences concerning the territories in America, nor in their consequences, nor had intermeddled in them directly or indirectly; so they had no intention to intermeddle in them, or in the consequences that might thereafter result from them. Thus far even the states general went; but in a memorial, or what they called a previous resolution, delivered by the towns of Amsterdam, Dort, Haarlem, Gouda, Rotterdam, and Enckhuysen, to the states of Holland, probably before they had heard of Mr. Yorke's declaration to the princess regent, these burgomasters went much farther. They declared flatly, That the republick was not obliged by any treaty to take part in differences, or a war kindled by other powers, out of Europe; and since the first cause of the hostilities, which were then transferred to Europe, did not concern the Republick, so they could not be obliged to intermeddle in its effects.—That if the treaties were to be applied to the present case, the question would be, who ought to be adjudged the aggressor in Europe? And the uncontroversial answer must be, that England was the aggressor in Europe, by her seizing a considerable number of French ships.—That the republick's guarantee of the protestant succession could not then be alleged, as Great Britain being threatened with an invasion by his most Christian majesty, was obliged to revenge, and obtain reparation for the injury he pretended to have suffered by the capture of his ships of war, and the trading ships of his subjects.—And that the succours demanded could be of no advantage to his Britannick majesty, because from the French king's declaration it appeared, that their granting these

under a necessity of demanding, in their turn, succours from Great-Britain.

This last reason was the only good reason any Dutchman could give for their refusing the succours we demanded: It was, indeed, a good reason for our not asking them; and, with respect to our own defence, it will always be a good reason for our not asking succours from any potentate on earth. While we preserve our superiority at sea, we really enjoy something like a divine attribute: We can give assistance to whomsoever we please, and can stand in need of none from any potentate under the sun. If this had been duly attended to, we should not have been involved in any, far less in the many defensive engagements we are now encumbered with. In consideration of a beneficial treaty of commerce, we may engage to guarantee the rights, or defend the possessions of the potentate, who can and does grant us such an advantage; but we ought never to ask or stipulate any such engagement from them, because it will always be looked on by them as an equivalent, or at least of greater value than it can ever be to us; for, if we had occasion for assistance, there is not a potentate in Europe who, by granting us assistance, might not probably be reduced to the same dilemma, in which the Dutch found themselves at the beginning of this war: That is to say, that their granting us the stipulated succours would immediately lay them under a necessity of demanding from us greater succours than they could afford to give us.

Now, as it is thus inconsistent with our real interest, even to accept of assistance from any power upon the continent, when we are in danger of being invaded; as our cities and towns upon the coast are all open, and have nothing for the defence or protection of themselves, or the country in their neighbourhood, but the courage, arms, and military discipline of the inhabitants; and as it would be inconsistent with our liberties to keep up such a numerous standing army, as would be necessary for guarding every part of our extensive coast, against being ravaged by a small number of invading enemies; it is one of the strongest arguments that can be urged, not only for our having a certain number of well disciplined militia, but for our having at all times every man in the kingdom able to bear arms, at least every man of any property, provided with proper arms and accoutrements, and acquainted with that sort of military discipline which is necessary in an engagement; which sort of discipline may certainly be

much sooner acquired, than that which is now practised by our regular troops, as a review, and in which our present military officers place their only confidence; tho' even they must acknowledge, that when the affair comes to be decided by the sword, or the ferocious bayonet, these punctilios are all laid aside; and to this a militia will bring every man in which they happen to be engaged, if they are well conducted, and if both the officers and men have a sufficient stock of courage and resolution, which, thank God! the people of the British dominions naturally have.

This, upon the news of the preparations making by France to invade this kingdom, gave rise to two very different opinions amongst us. One party, which I have already called the British party, allowed, that the militia, as it then stood modelled by law, could not be made of any service; but then they insisted, that if his majesty would grant commissions to the noblemen and gentlemen of each respective county, to raise and form regiments of volunteers, and to arm and discipline them as fast as possible, with an assurance that they should not be sent abroad, nor called out to service, unless an enemy landed in some part of the island, most of the young men in the kingdom would fit themselves in such regiments, by which we might soon form as many regiments as we could have occasion for, and those regiments might, in a few weeks, be taught so much of the useful military discipline, as would make them a match, in a close engagement, for any equal number of foreign regular troops, especially as such foreign troops could not bring any considerable number of cavalry along with them; from whence they concluded, that, for our defence against any possible invasion, there was no necessity for our bringing over a body of regular troops, either from Holland, or any other country in Europe.

By the other party again, this was treated as a mere speculative notion, which, upon trial, would be found practically impossible. Therefore they insisted, that we could trust to nothing for our defence but that of having a sufficient number of regular troops in the island, either of our own, or of foreigners; and consequently, as we had not a sufficient number of our own, it was absolutely necessary to bring over some foreign regular troops. Of this party most of our military officers declared themselves, and as they were reckoned the best judges of what belonged to their own trade, by those who were then our

chief ministers, a demand was made, as I have mentioned, of the 6000 men which the Dutch were, by treaty, obliged to send us; but as it was soon perceived, that this demand would not be complied with, it was presently countermanded; and, on the 23^d of March, his majesty sent a message, in writing, to parliament, by which he acquainted them, that he had received repeated advices, from different places and persons, that a design had been formed by the French court, to make an invasion upon Great-Britain or Ireland; and the great preparations of land forces, ships, artillery, and warlike stores, then notoriously making in the ports of France opposite to the British coasts, together with the language held by the French ministers in some foreign courts, left little room to doubt the reality of such a design. That his majesty had augmented his forces both by sea and land, and taken proper measures and precautions for putting his kingdoms in a posture of defence. That in order further to strengthen himself, he had made a requisition of a body of Hessian troops, pursuant to the late treaty, to be forthwith brought over hither; and for that purpose had ordered transports. And that he doubted not of being enabled and supported by his parliament, in taking all such measures as might be conducive to an end so essential to the honour of his crown, the preservation of the Protestant religion, and the laws and liberties of these kingdoms.

Upon this message both houses voted most loyal addresses, in which, among other things, they thanked his majesty for the requisition he had made of the Hessian troops; and these addresses were agreed to without any opposition in either house; for though the British party did not approve of trusting our defence to foreign mercenaries, yet, as no method had been taken to arm and discipline the people, nor even in such of our maritime counties as, by their situation, lay most exposed to the danger, they were apprehensive that by this very neglect the French might be encouraged to make a sudden invasion, with a small number of troops, upon some part of our coast, and if any such thing should happen, they foresaw that their enemies would endeavour to throw the whole blame upon them, if they had opposed and prevented the introduction of any foreign troops.

This probably was the chief cause of these addresses being so unanimously agreed to, and by this unanimity our ministers were encouraged to proceed further in the

same sort of measures: for, upon the 29th of the same month, Mr. Fox, then secretary of state, moved, That an humble address should be presented to his majesty, to beseech his majesty, that for the more effectual defence of this island, and for the better security of the religion and liberties of his subjects, against the threatened attack by a foreign enemy, he would be graciously pleased to order twelve battalions of his electoral troops, together with the usual detachment of artillery, to be forthwith brought into this kingdom.

This was pushing the use of those two sacred words, religion and liberty, as far as they could well go; and accordingly, the motion would have been strenuously opposed by the British party, but it was a point of too delicate a nature to be warmly opposed in a direct manner, therefore they chose to show their dislike of it in another manner; for as they had been apprised that such a motion was intended, they moved for the orders of the day, and insisted upon the question's being put upon that motion. If the question had been carried in the affirmative, it would probably have prevented the other motion, for that day at least, and perhaps for the whole session; for if they had found that the majority was of their side, they would always have prevented any question upon it, either by a motion for the orders of the day, or a motion to adjourn; but the question was carried in the negative by a considerable majority, consequently the other motion was agreed to; and then it was resolved to communicate their resolution to the lords, and desire their concurrence, which their lordships agreed to; and this joint address of the two houses was presented to his majesty on the 1st of April, when his majesty most graciously answered, that he would accordingly give immediate orders. And, in pursuance of these two addresses, these two bodies of foreign troops landed the next month in England, to their own great joy, I believe, but not much to the joy of the people of this kingdom, notwithstanding their apprehensions of being invaded by France.

Having thus given an account of all the proceedings of this session of parliament, that any way related to the war, I have only to add, that, on the 27th of May, his majesty, in a short speech from the throne, acquainted them of the invasion of Minorca, by the French, and of his having, in consequence thereof, declared war in form against that nation; after which, at his majesty's desire, the two houses adjourned themselves to the

18th of June; when they again, at his desire, adjourned themselves to the 1st of July, soon after which the parliament was prorogued.

[To be continued in our Magazine for January.]

An Inquiry into the Cause of the Pestilence, and the Diseases in Fleets and Armies, continued from p. 672.

PART. III. Historical evidence for the Cause of the Plague, and the Mortality in Fleets and Armies.

LET us take a view of mankind, and of their history.

We see the tradesmen in the cities, the labourers in the country, and the miners even in the heart of the damp earth, when enjoying perspiration, the fruit of their toils, in general free from the effects of deadly fevers. The active gentlemen enjoying their exercise, the ladies, and inactive gentlemen, who eat and drink abundantly on all occasions, have also their suitable relief. Four hundred stout Spaniards were confined, as has been observed, in the horrid hold of the Centurion man of war, in the hot climate of the East-Indies, during 900 hours; They came out alive; their perspiration had been excessive; for they went in stout men, and came ashore in China reduced to mere shadows: And of eighty-four wounded in the battle, and kept above, three only died; and these the first night they got on board the Centurion. An unusual escape for so many wounded by balls. We see too our soldiers, in their own country, when not incamped, especially the old regiments left at liberty to walk about, and take exercise, or following their original occupations, for some part of their time, by the indulgence of their superiors, also keep their health; which is a proof that the calls of nature may be easily supplied.

The crews of the Greenland ships go out and return, in general, free from distress, even in the coldest climates: For the fatigue they endure, when they go in quest of whales, and in their encounters with the ice, along with other labours, procure for them that degree of perspiration their constitutions require. This, in general, is the case with the crews of other merchant ships; they return from the most tedious voyages in health, when they are kept in their usual situation; and the sick and diseased in the hospitals, by the help of temporary evacuations, even in the midst of total inaction, are cured of their maladies.

From

From viewing man in his happy state, we shall begin with the sea, in narrating these dreadful events, by which the world has been depopulated. And as each of these facts gives nearly a view of what has always happened, it does not seem necessary to be long in the detail of human woe.

James I. in December 1622, intended to wage war upon the house of Austria, in favour of his son-in-law the elector palatine; and, to satisfy the enthusiasm of the English nation, an army of 12,000 foot and 200 horse were put on board at Dover, under the command of Count Mansfeldt. They did not get landed at Calais, as was intended, by reason of an alteration in the measures of France. This army therefore remained confined on board the Squadron in the channel, for eight or ten weeks; two-thirds of them were consumed by the fever, and the other part melted away in Zealand.

In the year following, upon the 9th of October, the duke of Buckingham embarked with an army of 15,721 men at Plymouth, in order to carry war into Spain. He landed at Cadix, and, finding the place too strong, he embarked again, with an intention to hover twenty days for the Spanish plate-fleet; but his attempt was frustrated by the effects of disease. He returned to port the beginning of December, with scarce so many men in health as could serve to bring home his ships.

The situation of men confined in these vessels is well known to be a state of great indolence; so that the degree of perspiration above the natural, which the constitutions of men formed for exercise and labour daily require, is not procured for them during their blockade.

In spring, 1692, Sir Francis Wheeler was sent from England, with a considerable force, in order to act offensively against the French settlements in America. He arrived at Boston June 12th; by that time his people were very sickly. He intended to perform some notable exploit against the enemy, but found his scheme impossible to be accomplished; for his Squadron was forced home by sickness. He arrived in England October the 12th, with scarce so many people alive as were sufficient to work his ships.

In the next place, we shall follow the track of Mr. Anson's voyage to the south-

seas. He set sail the 12th of September 1740, from St. Helena; upon the 20th of November the cry of sickness prevailed in the Squadron. This was the ninth week of their confinement. And when we look back upon this period of the two first voyages, made in the seas of Europe, in the winter season, Mansfeldt's men, who had probably fresh food, as they were not prepared for a tedious passage, were mostly dead, and Buckingham's men, who must have had salt food, as they were prepared for their voyage, were all sick. The little that men do in king's ships, during their passage to the south, makes them sweat somewhat, the evil day is thereby put off for a time; but in the north it can have small effect that way, especially in the winter season. The crews of the two first blockades therefore fell, sooner than Mr. Anson's people, a sacrifice to the power of the interior inactive putrefaction.

The Centurion made St. Catharine's December 20th; from her eighty men were put ashore sick, with a proportionable number of the other ships companies. At this port the sick increased aboard the Centurion to ninety-six, which was near one fifth of the crew; the number of dead amounting to twenty-eight. Having recruited the health of the men by the ordinary methods, they set sail southwards on the 18th of January 1741; and after touching to St. Julian, they again set sail, and made Strait Lemaire in the month of March. By that time the latent evil had full time to gather, especially as the climate was cold; so that the fatigue in passing the Cape, put their blood in violent motion, which brought out the distemper. In April forty-three died aboard the Centurion; and by the beginning of September three-fourths of the crew of the Squadron had perished. This was the 12th month of their operations; most of them melted away the next long cruize; the remainder, as has been noticed, were a few of the officers and the beardless boys; for the stout men, who were described in the third class, were consumed. Such was the fate of this Squadron: Yet upon a comparison of their miseries with that of others of the third class brought into this situation, the progress of the devastation will appear one of the slowest instances in history, as shall soon be noticed.

Rushworth's Collect. Appendix No. 11.

Butt. vol. 1. p. 555. for Appendix, No. 16.

Mr. Anson, p. 96. and his first voyage, p. 139.

45 Ibid. 218.

Ibid. Appendix, No. 15.

Ans. p. 48. for Appendix, No. 16.

Ibid. p. 218.

Ibid. 44.

The British forces that went upon the Cartagena expedition, as it is well known, confined in the same manner, suffered the same fate. The North American regiment, consisting of 3,600 men, scarce any of them survived. And of 500 men from New-England, fifty only returned home; few of these were killed by the Spaniards.

In the next place, we shall take a view of our rival nation, during such situations, in a temperate climate.

A squadron was fitted out, in the year 1746, by the French, with a view to retake Louisbourg, and annoy the British colonies. It sailed from Rochelle the 22d of June, under the command of duke d'Anville; the whole force amounted to 10,000 men. He arrived at Chebucto September 10th, and by the 13th of November, about one half of them, with the duke himself, were cut off by the sickness: So that this squadron, which seemed so powerful in the eye of their own nation, and so terrible an object to the colonies, returned, with its wretched wreck, without being able to perform any service to their country. The 13th of November made the 19th week of the operations of d'Anville's squadron, and two months of this time were spent in recruiting their health at land. The Centurion's crew, consisting of 506, by the 18th week of their cruise had only ninety-six left; the dead amounting to twenty-eight. Mr. Anson had the benefit of a warm climate, which favoured perspiration; d'Anville, in the temperate climate of Nova Scotia, did not enjoy this advantage.

In the first of the season 1757, a powerful fleet was fitted out by the same nation, in order to protect the important fortress of Louisbourg; 3,000 men remained about the squadron in the harbour, five months. In all they were but about eight months. A Gentleman, who was taken from on-board a merchant ship, and kept prisoner with them all this time, informs us, that the whole occupation, with which the multitude were amused, so far as he could observe, was in smoking, and that the rate of this pleasure was not less than 100 pipes per man per day.

ing tobacco pipe cases out of wood, at which art these unhappy men seemed very dextrous. By all accounts from France, the remains of this grand armament, in January 1758, did not consist of one tenth of the number that sailed from the mother country in the spring.

Sir Francis Wheeler's people infected the inhabitants of Boston with their disease; duke d'Anville's people the simple Indians of Nova Scotia: Mr. Douglas says one third of their little nation was consumed; and by the accounts from France, many of the inhabitants of Breist likewise received the contagion from the Louisbourg squadron.

Such is the figure these powerful nations make upon the watery element. For the annals of Britain and France show, how uniform these calamities fall on their people, especially during the first years of war, where men, from a state of labour have been suddenly thrown into a situation of extreme indolence in king's ships, and in proportion to the length of the voyages, the number of labourers confined aboard, and to the degree of coldness in the climate.

From the sea we shall view the devastations at land.

Plutarch, in his life of Pericles, observes, that a formidable army of Peloponnesians, and their allies, invaded Attica, and ravaged the country; that Pericles, the chief magistrate of Athens, determining to restrain the Athenians from opposing these invaders in the open field, had called all the inhabitants of Attica within the city; that these people, brought from their labours in the country, indulging themselves in a lazy, and wholly inactive life, during the invasion, were seized with the pestilence, which cut off the youth and strength of the state. The enemies of this magistrate, says this author, accused him for suffering his countrymen to remain in so indolent a situation.

Thucydides the historian, an eye-witness of the misery, and who had himself been obliged to be accommodated for his education at home by sickness.

He arrived at Athens in the month of October 1758.

Appendix N. 18. I. Ans. p. 26.

Animal and vegetable substance, shut up in the blood vessels, and beat upon for many days, by the force of animal heat, when it breaks forth from its confinement. Heat, seems to be a degree of corruption, vastly exceeding any thing to be found in open air.

And, however far the primary cause may act in the destruction of mankind, infection acting as a secondary cause, appears to have great influence upon the healthy, in promoting the devastation, on a near approach to such dreadful scenes of distress; but altho' those sick of the violent fever infect the healthy, on a near approach the disease seems to lose from its malignity, for those infected do not communicate the malady to others. This was distinctly seen at London, in May 1750, from what happened at the Old Bailey; those only who touched the contagion immediately from the prison were consumed.

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the fever, remarks, that the plague seized upon the Athenians, not many days after the second irruption, into Attica, of Archidamus king of Sparta, the second year of the Peloponnesian war; that this had been the longest stay of the enemy in the country of Athens; and during the first invasion of these Dorians, and their allies, they had kept six English miles from the city, and the people were employed within the walls, in making for themselves houses, and also upon several expeditions, abroad. But during the second invasion, and through the summer, when the plague broke out and raged in the city, the Athenians had no other labour, than burning and burying the dead, as these authors observe.

Thucydides sums up his moving description of this sad scene, with a prediction, handed down from ancient times, which was in every body's mouth upon this melancholy occasion. It conveys a lively picture of Greece and her sufferings, during a state of war, and the sure-effects produced from a blockade, as experienced by these nations.

*Two heavy judgments will at once befall,
A Doric war without, a plague within
your wall.*

Those who take a view of the map of ancient Greece will observe, that the natural strength of Peloponnesus, warring upon Attica, must have bore down, in every age, this naturally feeble power; for, when a strong state in Greece made war with one less powerful, the weaker party retreated, the country was ravaged, and the capital town invested*.

This state of inaction, anxiety, repining, and distraction, which prevailed amongst the Athenians, along with watching upon the walls, seems to be a true picture of the situation of cities, encompassed, or disturbed, by the enemy: Therefore the same distress should befall them when reduced to this situation; and, among this number, the following instances occur.

Rome, during the invasion of the Æqui and Volsci †. Carthage besieged by Africanus, were reduced to 5000 of both sexes. Marseilles besieged by Cæsar †. Jerusalem by Vespasian †. Rome besieged by Alaric §. Aquileia by Attila. The people of Edinburgh disturbed and

frighted from their labours, in consequence of the war of king James IV. and the fatal battle of Flouden ††. Milan blockaded by admiral Benuival (Guicciard). The English garrison of Havre-de-Grace, cooped up and besieged by Montmorency in the days of Elizabeth (Hume). Haddington in Scotland by the Scots, and the allies in the days of Edward IV. ††. Amiens besieged by Hen. IV. ††. Rochelle by Louis XIII. ††. Edinburgh, where the people were again frightened from their labours, upon the approach of the victorious army of Montrose ††. Stettin besieged six months by the troops of Brandenburg, in 1677 ††. Thorn, upon the Vistula, blockaded five months by the Swedes, in the year 1703, lost almost the whole Saxon garrison; and those citizens, who substituted watching on the cold walls, in place of their labour, and a guard room for warm beds, suffered the same fate ††. The new England militia in garrison at Louisbourg in the year 1745, were confined to the place, and they had no discipline nor labour ††. They got possession of the fortress in June, and were cut off in August, and the following months. The garrison of Oswego, upon the lake Ontario, in winter 1756, confined within the place, from a terror of the indians and by the severity of the frost ††. The town of Schweidnitz, in Silesia, invested about three months, in the end of 1757, and beginning of 1758, by the arms of Prussia ††.

Several of these garrisons, such as Thorn, Stettin, and Oswego, had salt food, and were killed like the seamen by the slow fever, called the black scurvy; the other cities were desolated, as they had fresh provisions, by the quick fever or pestilence. And all of them, that were besieged bowed their heads, and submitted implicitly to the severe law of the invader.

From these instances of the terrible effects of the interruption of exercise and labour, attended with want of usual perspiration to the active and laborious, in calling forth the deadly fever, as experienced at sea and land in every age, we shall take a view of those regions, where the pestilence has ever reigned with a dreadful sway, thinning the land of its people and striking into mankind innumerable

* Thuc. v. 1. b. 2. see appendix No 19.

† Cæsar com.

†† Hume.

††† Dr. Lind, see appendix No 30.

have this from a gentleman of the place.

§ Josephus.

¶ Davila.

¶ Univ. Hist. Vol. 16. p. 504.

¶ Lind.

¶¶ Doug. fam. v. 1. 351, 352.

¶¶¶ London Gazette, April 19, 1756.

¶ Livy A. U. 190, 191.

¶ Maidland.

¶ Lind.

¶¶

terrible calamities. These are the Magd
doms of Egypt and Ethiopia to consup
The river Nile overflows its ex
terests) and populous vallies of the
far, all the inhabitants of the country
confining them within the cities, far from
the usual exercise, and so some employ
ment, for by the floods, one half, or
three fourths of the season are annually
reduced to the same situation with idle
warriors, encompassed by the sea, and ra
tions in cities incircled by the enemy,
these kingdoms exhibiting to the eye the
appearance of a royal squadron, with a
shock of attendants, hovering upon the
ocean, from the middle of June till after
November; and, in order to obtain a satis
factory account of what happens during
the blockade, we have recourse to Prosper
Alpinus already mentioned, a witness of
these scenes of distress. His remarks are,
that a pestilential fever raged at Alexan
dria, where he was, during the second,
third, and fourth months of the manda
tion; that the sickness grows to a vast
height when the Nile rises uncommonly
high, that is to say, the fever increases in
its violence, and spreads devastation in
proportion to the height of the confine
ment; that in these years, when the cities
are uncommonly long invested, the Egyp
tians allow that this fever is the plague
produced in their country; that the stran
ger or country people are in general af
fected when the citizens escape; and that
in the year 1580, 300,000 people perished
by it in the city of Grand Caire alone. I
In following this subject, we must
point out the effect of alarm upon Euro
pean cities, because of the dread of the
plague, and shall omit mentioning any
more than these cases.

It has been noticed (from Prosper Al
pinus) that the Egyptians make no scruple
of purchasing the clothes and other ef
fects of those who die of the fever; and
his testimony is confirmed by all accounts
from the Turkish empire. By the bold
ness of the Egyptians in approaching the
sit, and perhaps too easily their goods,
it is probable that many lives are annually
lost by infection. This nation then may
be so bold, as the sickness swells to such
a height in their cities. But upon the
whole, we are afraid that the want
of knowledge in the people of Europe, their
superstition, and unnecessary apprehensions
of the plague, has plunged them into that
state of distress, from which they need

not all men know, from their own notions
of the plague, how terrible the object ap
pears to them; and, upon consulting their
hearts, they will feel them tremble at the
very sound of this awful word.

We have seen what has been produced
A during these situations already mentioned,
where the plague never was alleged to
have been imported, during the manda
tion of the Nile, upon the sea, in
king's ships, and in towns encompassed
by the enemy; that the sickness begins to
cut off the lower class of people, who are
driven from their labours, (in temperate
climates) towards the end of the first, or
the beginning of the second month of this
their situation; and that the sickness
spreads and encreases in violence for five
or six months, and then begins to abate,
as by that time its objects are mostly con
sumed; therefore with these uniform facts
in our eye, we shall take a view of what
happened lately in Sicily.

A letter in the London Gazette, dated Pa
lermo, June 21, 1743, and several others let
ters published at that time in other gazettes,
take notice, that the master of a vessel,
who had brought to the port of Messina, a
loading of wool from Mafalongo, had, in
his way thither, called in at Patroia, a
town in which the sickness at that time
raged. The master of the vessel bought
some tobacco and cotton stuffs at this city,
with an intention to have smuggled them
B a shore when he came to Messina. One of
the sailors died during the passage, the
master also soon after died; and the re
mainder of the crew, being conscious they
had called in at a sickly city, and that the
clean pass from Mafalongo had been pre
sented to the magistrates of health, were
F apprehensive of the danger they imagined
they were in, as well as that of the people
among whom they were, acquainted these
magistrates of their fears, that they had
called in at Patroia, and of the death of
the master and sailor. Upon which the
alarm was given, that the plague was
G brought to the place; that the Messinians
had dealings with the crew, and commu
nication with the vessel. The ship with
her cargo was instantly burnt, excepting the
things that had been smuggled a shore,
and the men who remained were strip
ped and sent to the Lazaretto. This vessel ar
rived in the month of March, and before
the alarm was given some days must have
elapsed. Any man in Europe, who lays
his hand to his heart, will feel the terror;

4 U

and
both ancient and modern authors are full in this particular. Lib. I. c. 14.
Appendix No. 1. and in the Appendix No. 1. and in the Appendix No. 1.
Appendix No. 20.

that, had he been at Messina, he would have had no manner of communication with the people who dealt with the crew, and bought their goods, nor with those who dwelt by the port, nor with the port itself. And as the imaginary evil was supposed to lurk chiefly in the goods that were smuggled ashore, and scattered every where, the whole place must have felt the alarm, and during a month or six weeks, continued in a state of dreary suspense; and those who were near the vessel, or had corresponded with the people aboard before she was burnt, must have remained totally inactive, as no body would venture to employ them. The anxious Sicilians therefore attended only to the object of their fears, upon which they had fixed their minds, hearkening to the motion of the winds, the waves, and the rumours of the city, to know whether or not the fever was broke out. And, during the dread of the alarm, it is scarce to be imagined that any body at Messina would venture to come out of their houses into the streets, or breathe with freedom the air, which they were taught by their ancestors to believe was a poison. What may discover also the greatness of the fright is, the count of Naples, in a letter published in the London Gazette, dated April 27, consider the burning of the vessel and her cargo, as a matter of great consequence, and had approved of the measure taken by the magistrates of health. This dreadful object therefore lay quiet in the troubled breasts of the unfortunate Messinians until the month or six weeks were expired, at which time the poor, driven from their labours, and rendered totally inactive began to fall in great numbers. Accordingly, the first notice we see taken of the affair is in a letter, dated Naples June 4, published in the London Gazette, which remarks, that the magistrates of health at Naples had cut off all communication with Messina, because an epidemical fever raged there, which for some time before had killed fifty people a day. The next letters from Palermo, of June 21, observe, it was the plague; that it began to kill on May 15th, and was making its usual havoc in that city.

From this late misfortune we may cast our eyes back to a former period, in order to view the fate of a more populous city than Messina.

In the month of March 1720, the pestilence raged among the Turks. The people of Marseilles consequently were uneasy, as they carry on an extensive commerce in the Levant; and their magi-

strates, attentive to the supposed danger, obliged the captains of every suspected vessel to perform quarantine, in the usual manner.

Captain Chataud arrived, upon the 23th of May, at the islands of Chateaudif, off Marseilles, from Sidon, Tripoli, Syria, and Cyprus; he presented a clean pass to the intendants, importing, that he came off on the 31st of January, which was allowed to have been some time before the disease made its appearance in those parts. At the same time the captain informed them, that six of his men in the passage home, or at Leghorn, where he had touched, perished by fevers. Upon the 27th one more of his crew died; the corpse being carried to the infirmary, and there examined, a report was made, that his disease was not the pestilence. However, the cautious magistrates ordered the cargo to the infirmary of Marseilles, there to remain forty days.

Captains Gabriel, and Ailland arriving from the Levant, with foul bills, their goods also were sent thither. On the 1st of June an officer placed in Chataud's ship died. But, notwithstanding this accident, Chataud's passengers, who had been confined in the infirmaries, were permitted on the 14th for the last time, and dismissed. On the 23^d one of his cabin boys and a servant, both employed in airing his goods, fell sick; and another porter, performing this office to the goods belonging to captain Gabriel, was also seized with the distemper; and upon the 24th a servant, employed about the goods of captain Ailland, was also seized in the same manner. These four dying, on the 24th and 26th, their bodies were examined, and a favourable report given of the cause of their death. Yet the intendants, from a laudable, though fatal precaution, ordered them to be buried in lime, the three ships to be carried to the distant island of Jarre, the yard where the goods lay to be inclosed, and the remaining servants to be confined. On the 7th of July two more of Chataud's men felt the disorder: Their surgeon found tumours in their groins, but did not give their distempers the name of plague. Soon after the surgeon himself, with part of his family, died. On the 8th, another servant of Chataud's seized with the fever was examined, and a swelling being found by his surgeon in the upper part of his thigh he pronounced, immediately, the distemper to be the plague. He consulted with the intendants; they called others to advise with; the result was, they consulted

the surgeon's opinion, that all the three patients had this fever. On the 9th these patients die, they are buried in lime, and the goods of Chataud were instantly removed to the island of Jarre. In this manner the alarm was given at Marseilles in the year 1720. The dismal apprehensions of the raging pestilence in the Turkish empire; so many concurring accidents falling out aboard Chataud's vessel, and at the infirmaries; the anxiety discovered upon those occasions by the magistrates; and the report made, that the three last-mentioned patients died of the plague, impressed the Marseillians with dreadful astonishment. The frightful idea of an imported pestilence presented itself in its ghastly form; and the most terrible consequences were expected immediately to ensue. Strict search was made in the city, in order to catch the lurking evil, and to root it out; but in this the people were greatly disappointed: Three persons only of the city were said to have this fever from the beginning of the alarm to the 26th of July, and even two of these cases were disputed. This disappointment gave an opportunity for the thinking part of the town to recover from their fright upon the 21st, and even to upbraid those who had sounded the alarm. But the gathering storm broke out at the usual time upon its proper objects. The whole city in the utmost terror, and every one suspicious of his neighbour's condition, there remained no leisure for occupying the poor, for confusion filled the whole city, the certain consequence of so great an alarm; and as Chataud's passengers had liberty from the 14th of June, this circumstance must have added greatly to their apprehensions. Therefore that dawn of hope, enjoyed from the 21st, was overcast upon the 26th; for in the street of La Sallé, a part of the old town, inhabited only by the poor, fifteen persons sickened, and a greater number of the same class were also soon after seized with the same distress. The trembling Marseillians upon this occasion, still eager to lay hold on every plausible consideration, reasoned with themselves, that as the plague spread itself only by infection, why did the poor only die? why did not the rich as well as the poor suffer? And why did the distemper operate so slowly? The distress increased, and great numbers in every street, before the 17th of August, sickened, all of them poor people; the unhappy Marseillians, therefore, still unwilling to part with their only hope, inquired, how, if it was the plague, should none but

these perish? But reasoning and doubt ended with this day, and their hopes were disappointed for ever. For the calamity was acknowledged by its judges to be this dreadful evil; and contagion soon after seconding the primary cause in its usual manner, and extending its influence, a multitude, consisting of every rank and age in the city, were mowed down.

From this catastrophe, we shall look back to a former period, in order to observe the consequence of an alarm, raised upon a more slight foundation than the arrival of Chataud's vessel at Marseilles; and by which the fate of a nobler city was determined.

The people of England, in the year 1664 and 1665, were alarmed with the progress of the pestilence, which, a little before, and at that time, raged in Holland. In London several alarms had been given, by people dying of violent fevers, and several of those in St. Giles's parish got the name of *plague*. For so soon as that part of the town was suspected, the people shunned all communication with it, and even with its neighbourhood. In one week of the beginning of May, the deaths increased considerably, which struck a general panic into the anxious multitude, whose hearts had long trembled at their imaginary danger. The week following, the number decreasing, the dread abated; but the week after, fourteen dying suddenly, the panic again seized the people with redoubled violence. Accordingly, the burials soon increased to forty-three; and in June they amounted to 470 in a week by the fever; for grass grew upon the streets, as business, from the beginning of the consternation, had been totally relinquished. Burying the dead became the only occupation of the living. The mortality increased, in September, to 1765 in a week, and the whole city became one scene of death, sickness and lamentation.

The disease went on as usual in these cities, in proportion to the length of the horror, till it had consumed its objects; but with more imaginary misery, than when men are deprived suddenly and for a considerable time, of their labours upon other occasions, and their distress denoted by a less dreadful name than that of plague, as every fact already stated, and to be immediately given, serves to prove: Yet the sickness is less fatal, in proportion to the numbers of people in towns, who consists of all the three classes, and who have their warm beds to soak in at pleasure, than to armies, garrisons and the crews

crews of royal squadrons, during first voyages, when brought into this situation, for the same length of time, as they consist chiefly of the third class, without any mixture of the first, and are harrassed with watching, which we shall afterwards take occasion to shew, by a comparison of these scenes.

From the common effect of blockades, and sudden alarms, in European cities, interrupting exercise and labour, and calling forth the pestilence, we shall consider the consequence of cold in the north; and as we beheld the months of August, September, October and November, to the end of the inundation, fatal by sickness upon the banks of the Nile, for a more powerful reason, the months of December, January, February and March, to the end of the frost, is the deadly season in the cold regions of the north, when, by its influence, labour is not only interrupted, but perspiration rendered difficult to be obtained, the most extraordinary frost recorded in history, was that which commenced with the end of the year 905, and lasted 120 days, even in the southern provinces of Europe, with great violence, and threw the empire into the same situation with the country people of Egypt, during an extraordinary inundation; consequently the plague was acknowledged by all men, to have raged at that time in the known parts of Europe.

The hard and long frost of the year 1709, had the same effect on Dantzic, at the foot of the Vistula, and Hamburg on the Elbe, with several other trading cities, as the more extensive frost of 905 on all Europe, consequently the porters, and a multitude of other labourers, usually employed in trade and shipping, were reduced to the situation of the more southern parts of Europe, in that remarkable year. Therefore, the Europeans again like the Egyptians, acknowledged that the plague raged at that time in these cities: When we go to the more inland parts of the continent of Europe, where salt provisions during the winter are chiefly used, we find the annual frost like the ordinary inundation of the Nile, occasioning annually, a considerable mortality in the same latitudes; and the distress like that of the sailors, denoted the scurvy, and with all the symptoms as at sea.

In the year 1738 and 1739, 30,000 people were engaged upon the banks of

the Verona and Don, in preparing a fleet for the use of the Russian army. 2700 boors, 5 or 600 sailors, and 2 or 3000 soldiers composed this body. In the cold month of February the scurvy made its appearance; the lazy Boors compelled to work suffered little, the sailors who acted the part of their directors, suffered more, but the soldiers their haughty lords, employed in watching this flock, in order to prevent desertion, were still more miserably afflicted.

At Astracan situated on the Volga, the sailors who work thro' the whole year, are not consumed in the frosty seasons, but the boors, naturally indolent, deprived of their ordinary occupations, by the rigour of the season, and left at their liberty are greatly distressed; yet their misery comes short of that of the garrison of 6000 men stationed in the city. These soldiers raised from the humble order of boors, to the rank of idle gentlemen of the army, require from 600 to 1000 recruits, annually to fill up the places made vacant by the sickness, during the winter and spring.

At Riga the capital of Livonia, the boors, more industrious than their brethren of Russia, suffering no interruption of labour, enjoying their health, the fruit of their toil thro' the whole year; but the idle soldiers of the army, destined to fall every where the first untimely sacrifices to diseases, suffer greatly during the frost. Yet their distress is far short of that of the proper garrison, consisting of 7000 men, who are confined to watch in the city.

From the frozen continent of Europe, we pass to North America, where the annual frosts far exceed in severity what is felt in Europe in ordinary seasons, or even perhaps in the remarkable year 905 itself occasioning, during the winter, a more early and still more extensive devastation; the history of Europe, in every age, gives evidence, that it was over fertile in people, while the northern half of the western world, seems in ages past to have remained almost a desert, less than 100,000 natives, according to Dr. Douglass, is the amount of the inhabitants of the known parts of that vast and fertile continent. And altho' the French nation have been bent on establishing powerful colonies in Canada equal to the British.

Univ. Hist. vol. 17. p. 27. In those days the cultivation of the ground, was almost the only manufacture attended to in Europe, therefore so prodigious, and so tedious a frost, must have entirely put a stop to labour. See the Gazetteer. See Dr. Cook's letter in Appendix No. 25. See Appendix.

British, since the reign of Henry the great, their attempt has proved ruinous and almost vain, for 150 years are expired, and the mother country drained during that time, and 12,000 men only was the number of the Canadians able to bear arms; according to the same author, in the year 1747*, and this account of the true state of Canada, is fully confirmed by general Townshend's late letter, with the surrendering of Quebec. Such is the desolate state of North-America, and we have no reason to doubt, but that God planted these fertile and pleasant regions, as early as the other parts of his world. The Savage nations indeed keep no records of the dead, but the winter's calamity by which the western world is depopulated, and its specific remedy is well known to them.

When the French settled upon the river St. Laurence, they were astonished at the sight and feeling of their miseries, during the frosty season†, upon which they consulted the Savages for relief, who told them, that their cure was frequently sweatings, that content, mirth and a cheerful humour preserved the Americans; for the diseases generally killed the idle, the discontented and repining. If American records be the only evidence wanting in proof, of the cause of the desolate state of that vast continent; the journals of the Europeans fully compensate the deficiency.

In the month of December, says James B. Cartier, a French gentleman, who carried over a colony in the year 1535, in order to settle upon the river St. Laurence, we understood that the pestilence was come upon the people of Stadagann, and in such sort that before we knew of it above 50 of them had died, whereupon we charged them neither to come near our forts, nor about our ships. Yet, notwithstanding this precaution, the said unknown sickness began to spread itself among us, after the strangest sort that ever was heard of or seen. It prevailed, says he, so about the middle of February, that of 110 people there were not 10 whole men, so that the one could not help the other, a most horrible and pitiful case. He further adds, this malady being unknown to us, the body of one of our men was opened, to see if by any means possible, the occasion of it might be discovered; and the remainder of us saved; but in such a manner did the calamity encrease, that there was

not now three sound men left; 25 of our best men died, and all the rest were so ill, that we never thought they could recover again.

The next accounts of the winter's misery in Canada, is published by Escarbot, anno. 1604. Briefly, says the French, the unknown sickness like to that described by James Cartier, assailed us; as to remedies there were none to be found. In the mean while the poor creatures did languish, pining away by little and little. It was most pitiful to behold, every one, very few excepted, in this great misery, wretches dying as it were full of life, without any possibility of being succoured, 36 died, and 36 or 46 more stricken with it, recovered themselves by the help of the spring, so soon as that comfortable season appeared. They add further, that the sickly season is the frosty months of December, January, February and March, wherein men die most commonly every one in his turn§.

To the north of the river St. Laurence, the frost proving still more severe, the distress increases in proportion to its vigour; for all or most of the working part of mankind, who have wintered in these high latitudes have perished of the scurvy; (as their provisions were salted) before the approach of the spring. Such as captain Monk's people in 1619, and captain James's in 1631, at Carleton island, and a set of sailors left for an experiment at Spitsbergen in 1633, and another in the year 1634||.

Yet the Hudson's Bay company of England, since they recruited from the idle inhabitants of Orkney**, and such others, do not bury one out of their four sorts, containing 100 men, in seven years; for long experience taught these gentlemen, that such men only as they now employ in the frozen latitudes, could survive the winter††.

But a state of labour and indolence by turns, seems to be the habit of the Savage nations of North America, for the necessity they lye under in procuring food, compels them to undergo the severest toils, and the extreme rigour of the frost, deprives them of an opportunity of stirring abroad in the winter, which they must suffer for, like other men during such situation.

The British colonies lying upon the skirts of the ocean, are populous and flourishing.

* See vol. 1. p. 96.

† See the French account of their distress in the winter, Appendix N°. 26, 27 and 28, and the English account of it in Appendix N°. 29.

‡ See Appendix N°. 26.

§ Ibid. 27.

|| Ibid. 29.

** A circum-

stances well known, for the women do all the hard work in Orkney. †† Ibid.

flourishing; they enjoy the benefit of an extensive commerce, which has rendered labour necessary and valuable, during every season.

Less happily situated than the British, are the French colonies in Canada, they lie farther to the north, at several hundred miles distance from the sea, and their communication with the world is frozen up, during seven months of the year.

From the dull regions of the north, we pass to the cheerful climate of the south, in order to view a singular scheme and its effects.

The simple Indians of Hispaniola made their grand effort, with an army of 100,000 men, in order to rid their country of Columbus and his Castilians, but were unfortunately repulsed †. This trial of European prowess convinced the Americans, that any further attempt with arms would prove vain and ineffectual: They therefore had recourse to a stratagem, which afforded a prospect of better success; for having long observed, that one Spaniard destroyed more provisions than ten of their people, they concluded, that it was impossible for such men to subsist in the island, were they deprived of the benefit of their labours; the Hispaniolans therefore abandoned the low country, and retired to the mountains, hoping, by this method to starve their voracious lords; but the event proved lamentable on the part of the poor Indians; the fever seized upon them in their retreat; one third of this multitude were consumed, and scarcity of provisions obliged the remnant to return to their labours, and submit again to the yoke of Columbus.

From this sample of the dire effects of European usurpation in America, we may turn back to observe what passes during the summer amongst the nations bordering upon the Baltic.

Several gentlemen, who have been in these countries, inform us, and which is well known, that the royal squadrons of Russia, Sweden, and Denmark, when they returned to port in the third or fourth month of their cruise, as the Russian squadron did from Memel, and the Swedish and Danish from the coast of Norway, in the year 1757, and the Russian squadron, during the present year, were sickly, and and often have buried one half or three-fourths of their numbers. These idle warriors, mostly peasants, forced from their labours in the country, when parting with their sorrowful friends, take their

last farewell, in peaceful times, as well as in war, assured, from past events, they never shall return; the remnant, if not prevented, carry infection to land; and frequently it happened, as it did at Boston, Nova Scotia, Brest, and other places, many people die by contagion, when they approach very near these scenes of terrible distress. Let us, in the next place, consider the situation of armies. Their time, during war, when employed in foreign countries, which is well known, is mostly divided betwixt watchings and intire indolence on one hand, and a state of violent action on the other.

The two first situations stop that great degree of perspiration, which is necessary for the lower class of mankind daily to enjoy, and gives time to the latent evil to gather and corrupt. The last occasions a quick circulation of the blood, which extends the vessels beyond their natural wideness, and never suffers a soldier's condition to mend during war; which is not the case with the sailors, for during the course of a few years war, their condition mends, and they enjoy health in an indolent situation, but with the soldiers it is not so, for one two or three days violent labour immediately succeeding to, 20 or 30 days idleness, or a state of watching, calls forth quickly that flame which consumes the brave, during the course of every campaign. We shall mention only a few remarkable events. The sanguine Athenians bent on the conquest of Sicily, sent forth a fine army, under the command of Nicias, in order to accomplish their scheme; but the vigorous efforts of the Syraculans and their allies, retarded their motions, and rendered Nicias inactive, upon which the plague seized his army, and rendered the scheme of the Athenians, for the conquest of Sicily abortive †.

The Carthaginians, bent upon the same conquest, sent forth a vast army, under the conduct of Imilcon; and this army, having tore down many sepulchres, in order to form a wall round Agrigentum, were overtaken by the plague, and most miserably reduced †.

The Carthaginians, observing no cause that had brought on this distress, were of opinion, that the misery which beset them, was a punishment sent from heaven for having violated the monuments of the dead. Soon after this disaster, an army, still more numerous, of the same nation,

† We tremble for the fate of those good brave men, the conquerors of Canada, left in garrison at Quebec, cooped up by the rigour of the frost, in the midst of savages, and in a country's town. The distress of the garrison of Ogdégo in the winter of 1756, as well as all the above instances, alas, is too evident a proof of the miseries they will suffer. See App. No. 11.

under this commander, again invaded that fine island; and having nearly made themselves masters of it, meditated the siege of Syracuse, which they kept blocked up by sea and land, but they also met the plague, which frustrated the vast efforts of Carthage, and their Sicilian projects. There was no enemy in the field to keep them in motion, and investing a town could not give labour to such mighty shoals of Barbarians.

Cæsar's fine army, in like manner perished, when he became master of Italy; for he was obliged to remain inactive at Brundisium, for want of shipping to carry them in pursuit of Pompey †. And his enemy Labienus, mentioning this disaster, in his speech before the battle of Pharsalia, observes, that many of the conquerors of Gaul were consumed by the plague in Apulia.

The crusading army of Louis IX. of France endured a blockade in their camp at Carthage in Africa in the year 1270, formed by the moors; and that prince, with most of his men, were also cut down, without being able to go further in his pious purpose of conquering the Holy Land.

Henry V. of England assembled an army of 50,000 men in the year 1415, in view of subduing a finer country. He made an unexpected delay of twenty or thirty days, in the midst of his embarkation, on account of a conspiracy against his life, in favour of the house of York. He set sail August 10th, and upon the 25th of October, they were reduced to 10 or 11,000 men, that famous day on which this little army gained the battle of Azincourt. The season was wet; they had a siege, and some marches to make; they died chiefly of the dysentery ‡. The Swedish army of Gustavus the great, and the imperial army commanded by Wallenstein, during their reciprocal blockade at Nuremberg in the year 1632, were cut down at first by the petechial fever, as the weather was warm and dry, in the end it became a dysentery ||.

In the year 1717, as has been noticed, prince Eugene with a fine army came before Belgrade. He threw up extensive lines to confine the Turkish garrison within the place; he was obliged also to use the same precaution, to defend an eminence on which he encamped, in order to frustrate the efforts of the grand Turkish army that came to relieve the city.

They encompassed Eugene in their turn for ten or twelve weeks. These 55,000 men in watching, during that time, upon these extensive lines, were reduced to 22,000 able to bear arms, by the 18th of August, that day Eugene fought the Turks ††.

The 18th of August, seems to have been the middle of the third month of this blockade, from the time the works had been finished, at which about two-thirds of them were consumed, when every advantage of air, of climate, and of food was enjoyed. We shall compare it with the same period of other such situations, where the active and laborious have been deprived of their exercise and labour, so as to observe what effect climate and situation have upon the progress of the distress.

Not many days, says Thucydides, had Archidamus, with two-thirds of the forces of Sparta and her allies, ravaged Attica, confining the Athenian nation within their walls, when the plague broke out in the city, which consumed the youth and strength of the state; so that by this period the distress at Athens, as described by that author, had been far advanced ††.

When we take a view of the British channel, in winter 1625, an army consisting of 12,200 of the forces of James, under the command of Mansfeldt, had, at this period of their confinement on board their vessels, paid, long before it was due, the debt they owed to nature §§. And in the same year, upon the ocean, before this period, an army of 15,721 men of the forces of Charles, under the command of Buckingham, in the like situation, were all sick, and forced to abandon their design on the Spanish plate-fleet |||.

To the south, where great heat was endured, we find the forces commanded by Mr. Anson, had at this time only begun to taste the cup of distress ***.

To the cold Baltic the royal squadrons of Russia, Sweden and Denmark, are thinned by disease, and making with speed, by this period of their cruise, their way into port. To England, in the year 1665, we find the vast capital of that kingdom, at this period of their horrible pannes, losing only 2019 of her people in a week; (the numbers of the dead as yet seems not to have exceeded 15,000.) The bill of mortality amounting this year, in the whole, to 97306, the fever itself to 68596 †††.

To

Diadorus.

† Cæs. Com. see App. No. 91.

† Voltaire.

§ Rapin.

|| See Hist. of Gustavus Adolphus, vol. 2, p. 251.

*** See the life of prince

II Thuc.

§§ wrote by an officer, ed. of Saxe's Rev. art. 3, in Appen. No. 2.

|| Ibid.

*** Anson, p. 48.

||| See the journal of the plague of Marseilles.

†† See the journal of the plague of Marseilles.

To the right of the Danube we behold Messina, a populous city, in the year 1741, alarmed, and driven into the same situation in the beginning of April, from the dread also of an imaginary evil, burying 3000 of her people, and 3000 more were lost in the hospitals by the 5th of June.

And to Marienins in the year 1720, a city containing 100,000 people, the burials do not seem to have exceeded 5 or 8000; a distress, in proportion to number, in these three cities, far short of the real misery of the imperial and royal army of Eugene.

When we extend our view towards the west, about this time one half of the colony militia, in garrison at Louisbourg, in 1745, as many of the duke d'Anville's forces in 1746, and an equal number of the garrison of Oswego, a fortress situated upon the woody banks of Ontario, in 1756, were rendered useless, or consumed by disease.

When we turn back from these distant seas, these savage and uncultivated regions, to Europe, the Austrian garrison of Schweidnitz, a town seated in the most pleasant and best cultivated country in Germany, was reduced to half its numbers, a few days after this period of the blockade, formed, during the end of the year 1757, and the beginning of 1758, by the arms of Frederick the Great.

Turning from the temperate climates of Europe and America, to take a view of the eastern confines of Africa, we find the Egyptians, in their sultry region, at this period of the annual inundation, groaning under the effects of the deadly fever, which as yet has not received that doleful epithet, a *true plague*. More terrible by far the annual situation of our species planted on the frozen banks of the river St. Laurence, and to the north of that river, in whose gloomy regions, during the winter, they enjoy not the sunshine of Egypt favourable to perspiration. For by this period of the frost, 1/3 of the number of the labourers cast idle, have met their death, or by pining in a bed of sickness, owing their painful interval of life to the effects of salt checking the influence of the pestilence.

Appendix, No. 23. * Ibid. No. 5.

Appendix, No. 13.

Sum. April 29, 1758.

That the evil of 1758 had been imported in October, which shows, that the Egyptians think little of the distress, till towards the end of the inundation.

See the Gazettes concerning Apraxin's army, the French in Germany, the Semdas, &c. Apraxin took the field with 20,000 effective men, he fought a battle with the Prussian general, which cost him the lives of a few thousand men, and his retreat to Russia was made surprizingly early in the season, and we are told

From these comparisons it appears, that the devastation in Eugene's army, the middle of the third month of their blockade, has been equalled by some, never exceeded by the distress of any people in the same degree of heat. Their watchings had been uninterrupted upon their extensive lines: for on one hand they had a numerous garrison to confine within Belgrade, and, on the other hand, they had to watch the formidable motions of the grand Turkish army which hovered over their camp, with an intention to relieve the city: So that their time, as it would seem, having been wholly taken up in watchings, and intense indolence, they could not enjoy that necessary and regular relief, by an increase of perspiration above the natural, required by the constitutions of men formed for labour: By which means their distress was rendered sudden and remarkable.

The history of the Romans remark few such catastrophes as these befalling their armies. For the moving of the legionaries, who were the best men, and most used to labour of any in the Roman service, with their load of armour, gave them constant and regular fatigue, and its consequences a sweat every time they mounted guard.

In like manner, the armies of Prussia, during the marchless campaign of 1757, were not heard to groan under a load of distress, when the banks of the Rhine, the Weser, and the Elbe, Swedish Pomerania, and the kingdom of Prussia, resounded with the complaints of their inactive adversaries. And in the year 1758, to the unfortunate battle at Frankfort, which has thrown his Silesian army into a fatal situation, we heard of no sickness in his camp, while the noble representative of the illustrious Marlborough, soon after his blockade at sea, fell a prey to the powers of interior putrefaction; and the brave English upon the heaths of Westphalia in their idle encampments at home, and their expeditions abroad, continue to meet their late leader's fate, as they did of old in the fertile fields of France, and in whatever foreign land they bore

1 Doug. Sum. v. 1, p. 351, 152.

22 Lond.

We have this from a gentleman of the place,

Alpinus, lib. 1. ch. 15. says, the opinion in Egypt was,

that the evil of 1758 had been imported in October, which shows, that the Egyptians think little of the distress, till towards the end of the inundation.

See the Gazettes concerning Apraxin's army, the French in Germany, the Semdas, &c.

Apraxin took the field with 20,000 effective men, he fought a battle with the Prussian general, which cost him the lives of a few thousand men, and his retreat to Russia was made surprizingly early in the season, and we are told

bore the arms of their country. Nay wherever men could breathe, and sweat out the evil, there they are not only well, but healed of their maladies. Eighty-one men of eighty-four recovered of wounds in the midst of great heat, and all the other Spaniards came out alive from the horrid hold of the centurion.

Let us, in the next place, consider the situation of the capital of the Ottoman empire.

Constantinople exhibits annually a singular scene of affliction †. This great metropolis is supported, not like other cities by the industry of the inhabitants. It is the residence of the Ottoman court, the great families of that vast empire, the officers of state, their dependants and expectants; into it is poured the wealth of all the provinces, in order to supply the luxury of the great. These proud Mussulmen have a great passion for shew, and a taste for a numerous retinue of servants and slaves, which is well known; the extreme poverty of the working people favours this taste; and the ordinary cheapness of provisions, gives them the means of keeping up their domesticks. Therefore this vast metropolis is in reality a luxurious and idle encampment, with neither arms, discipline nor labour; consequently a continual recruit from the lower class is required, to fill up the places annually made vacant by the fever.

In the next place, we may consider one singular fact, which affords a two fold view of the distress and its remedy, with the advantage that salt provisions have over fresh in the recovery.

The royal African company of England in the year 1733, fitted out the Dispatch, Bartholomew Stibbs master, with instructions for him, to proceed up the river Gambia, in order to make discoveries for their advantage †. When Mr. Stibbs arrived in that river, many of his numerous crew were dropping off by the fever. Mr. Stibbs set out with fifty-two men, in five heavy canoes, from thirty-three to forty-two feet in length. His office was to keep the journal, Mr. Drummond the accounts. Mr. Hull went ashore on every occasion, as a miner; and the remainder of the crew were left to take care of the ship. The labours of those who went upon the expedition were excessive, in working up against the stream, and carrying the canoes over shoals.

Appendix, 1759.

But be lost during the campaign near 40,000 men by the sickness. * The English regiment of blue guards have lost one third of the number, and the battalions above our fifth by the fever and dysentery. † Saumery's Memoirs, p. 165, 20,000 commonly die in the year, and 20,000 is thought a great mortality. ‡ Moore's Travels, see Appendix 23.

low places in the river. Mr. Stibbs and his people got back to their ship, after an absence of two months and twenty-three days. He gives this account of the condition of his crew:

That although, at his setting out, some of them were feeble, yet they were all fat, strong and well, at their return, none died, he only had been sick; but on the contrary, those left behind, who had the whole vessel to breathe in, he found in great distress with the sickness.

There cannot be any fact more distinct in all its parts, than this one. We have a two fold view of the blockade, in the misery of the crew, before and at their setting out, and of those who were found in the ship at the return of the expedition; also nature's remedy for the calamity, in the condition of the men at their return from their labours. And in the case of Mr. Stibbs, there is a proof how impossible it is for a delinquent against the laws of his constitution to escape: He kept the journal, which necessarily confined him to his station; Mr. Drummond, who kept the accounts, by his office was not confined to the canoe, and he was the only other person who could be exempted from hard labour.

It is ordinary for people coming from sea, to call for greens, when they arrive at any settlement; to this medicine, probably, and the effects of salt, checking the progress of the superfluous matter hoarded up amongst their blood, the advantage these men enjoyed may be ascribed, who were feeble when they set out, and recovered by the effects of violent perspiration, the fruit of their toils.

Mr. Anson's sailors, in the midst of their fatigue in passing Cape Horn, were cut down by the latent evil; but they had no greens, and were also enduring the sixth month of their confinement in a cold climate.

When we turn from the Gambia to such situations at land where the diet is fresh provisions, all the armies are in a flame. The fever and dysentery, neither is to be taken off by greens, nor sweated off during violent labour; for the breaking up of the winter quarters, and of idle encampments marks, upon every occasion, the whole track of the march with human woe; the young and the strong men fall, not like the dropping of ripe fruit from their stalks in the autumn, but they fall, like

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like the fresh bough, with the green leaf, blown from the trees of the forest, by the fury of a storm, never more to adorn the world.

Lastly, we shall consider the effect of famine, which has called forth the pestilence, still more fatal to the human race, than the annual inundations of the Nile, sudden alarms in Christian cities, or perhaps the frosts in the north, and the miseries of war.

Eastern famines, as have been observed, are occasioned by long drought, whereas the scarcity of corn in the British isles, has proceeded always from the effect of cold and too much rain.

We shall then draw into our view the bad consequence which followed the crop of 1756 in Scotland, as from it may be learned, in some degree, the situation of countries afflicted by great drought.

The working people in Scotland earn about four shillings sterling in the week; their principal food is oat meal, sixteen pounds of it serves a man and his family seven days, which he buys in a year of plenty, at a penny a pound weight, and the remainder of his wages being thirty-two pence, he lays out upon other parts of food and conveniences less necessary; he also pays with it his house rent. The price of meal, during the year 1757, was, over Scotland, about two pence a pound; therefore his sixteen pounds of meal cost him thirty-two pence, so that sixteen pence only remained in his hands at the end of the week, which laid him under a necessity of purchasing fewer of the other conveniences of life. This circumstance occasioned a small consumption of the manufactures of the country thro' that year, and every man concerned in the interior trade of Scotland felt the severe effects of the bad crop of 1756. Had the scarcity been greater, so as to have occasioned the price of meal to advance to three pence a pound, or had other provisions, such as animal food, milk, butter, cheese, and vegetables, kept pace with grain, as must be the case when drought brings famine into the land, his four shillings would have been exhausted on food alone, and as no money remained in his hands, he could not have purchased other goods, the produce of his country, neither could he have discharged his house rent. As the fields in the east are burnt up every droughty year, these nations at once must be reduced to extreme poverty, in which the landed interest is deeply involved; for the farmers, graziers, and gardeners, receiving no produce from the ground, they are not in a capacity to pay

their rents: Therefore, when all that money, the bulk of every nation have, in years of plenty, to lay out with their dealers, is exhausted on the mere necessities of life alone, and the better sort themselves are reduced to poverty, the merchants in such year, not finding customers buying as usual, immediately stop purchasing goods of the tradesmen, which directly deprives them of the means of prosecuting their ordinary labours.

The sufferings of the people in Scotland were severe during the late scarcity, but their distress bore only a faint resemblance of the miseries of eastern nations in barren years; for they groan under the weight of despondency, which rarely bends to the cry of the needy. Britain was enjoying the blessings of liberty, under a government attentive to supply the wants of her people. Our manufacturers were supported, not only by interior, but also by foreign consumption, which ignorant nations have not. Scotland was covered with verdure, the effects of a wet season, the countries in the East are burnt up by the drought; therefore, when their gardens produce no fruit, and their fields neither grass to mow, nor corn to be cut down, when the tradesmen, unsupported by foreign consumption, are dismissed from their labours, as no money remains with the bulk of the people to purchase the works of their hands, these nations are, in such years, by the dire effects of famine, thrown suddenly into a state of total inaction, the laborious in town and country no longer enjoying that seasonable relief, by a great degree of perspiration above the natural, which their constitutions demand, and constant labour procure; they, with all other nations that ever were driven into this situation, as it is the same into which we beheld these multitudes fall, have been hitherto destroyed, and must necessarily, in times to come, perish by pestilence.

Among these dreadful events, the following instances from the Universal History occur.

In the year before Christ 424, an extraordinary drought in Italy occasioned a famine at Rome, which brought forth the pestilence in that city.

The same calamity occasioning a famine 115 years before Christ, in Numidia, Cyrene, and other parts of Africa; these kingdoms were depopulated by the plague. The Africans imputed the famine to the live locusts, and the sickness to their untimely death.

Twenty-five years before Christ, famine afflicted Judea, and its attendant the fever, depopulated that kingdom.

The same mortality seized Rome and Italy 52 years before Christ from the same cause, and as it would seem there were no locusts to be seen devouring the corn, the servile Romans imputed the calamity to the wrath of the Gods, displeased because Augustus their master resigned his consulship.

In the year of our lord seven, Judea was again afflicted with famine, and depopulated by the plague.

Famine and war overspreading the Roman provinces in the year 252, their attendant, the sickness, thinned Rome and her Empire; this evil was supposed to have travelled to Italy from the banks of the Nile.

In the year 262 drought again seized the Empire, and an universal pestilence thinned all the provinces.

All the eastern provinces, during the year 312, and the two following years, were afflicted with drought, which occasioned a grievous famine attended with an universal pestilence.

In the year 333, Syria, Cilicia, Thrace, and other provinces of the Roman empire, were visited with such a famine as raised the bushel of wheat to 400 pieces of silver, consequently these provinces were depopulated in an extraordinary manner by the plague.

In the year 364 the temple of Apollo at Rome, and that of Daphne at Antioch, were consumed by fire, the sea broke in and overwhelmed cities, a great drought occasioned a famine, and its attendant the pestilence, swept away, in the language of the historian, myriads of men.

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Mod. Univ. Hist. vol. 3. p. 475.

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In the year 406, a famine came upon Palestine, the locusts swarmed and darkened the air in their flight, consequently to them, the origin of that sickness was imputed, which depopulated the country.

In the year 1025, again drought occasioned a famine in the Roman empire and the plague its attendant desolated the land.

In the year 1065, famine overran Egypt to such a degree, that cats and dogs sold at an extraordinary price, and the bodies of the dead became food for the living, consequently the plague raged so highly, that most of the Egyptians were cut off by it. The London Gazette of April 18, May 23, and July 15, 1758, gave an account of the miseries the Turks were suffering from famine, and soon after, advice came of the progress of the plague in those parts.

Yet while Africa has been annually afflicted by the plague, and North America rendered by it a desert, when Europe and all the kingdoms of Asia, have been thinned in every age, China alone has remained ever populous and flourishing. The history of that empire remarks few instances of grievous famines, and as few of general sickness thinning the provinces, nay it declares that the Chinese are strangers to the pestilence. The first maxim of government in China, tends to promote a spirit for agriculture, which procures provisions in abundance; they never have been disturbed by long and cruel wars, and every species of industry is encouraged. Labour therefore in this country stands secured upon the most extensive plan of commerce and industry.

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From these scenes of human woe, we descend to the brute creation, in order to view their state, and compare it with that of the higher rank of beings.

The dog enjoys animal and vegetable food with his master; he shares also in his action and inaction: His heat is the same and the structure of his animal economy too is nearly the same; for as the dog does not perspire thro' the skin, it goes all out by his mouth. We ought then to find in the history of the kennel, the sum total of these human calamities, to learn the means by which they are prevented from taking place.

A pack of dogs, when they run in corn countries, are taken off from their labours in the month of April. The feverish months are June and July. The careful huntsman observes to give his dogs half meat only, and that cold; he bleeds them in June, he bathes them frequently, (a method that great advantage has been reapt from on ship-board,) and he gives them all the fatigue he can devise. These are the usual methods observed in the kennel; and the sure consequences of a total neglect in the huntsman, in case the dogs have run hard during the season, and are confined, proves the ruin of the pack by the fever: But the dogs that run thro' the whole year, need no part of this care, neither do those who are left in the houses of the farmers and others, to the freedom of their instinct, for they run through the night and in the mornings of their own accord.

From the faithful dog, we may notice some facts which concern the horse, another companion of mankind.

Plutarch, in his life of Eumenes, observes that this hero, blockaded in the little castle of Nora, in Cappadocia, by the troops of Antigonius, was in danger of losing his horses for want of exercise. The greatest room in the place measured only twenty-one feet in length, therefore he ordered them to be tied up by the head, with strong ropes, to the roof of the apartment, until their forefeet just touched the ground. The grooms lashed them at stated times, until they were all in a foam. By these means, we may believe, Eumenes preserved his horses from the fever. Less painful than the general of the Greeks, would it seem were the Roman leaders,

during the invasion of their state by the Equi and Volsci, for upon that occasion thousands of horses reduced to the same situation with the men, were consumed by the fever in Rome. And Gustavus the great, during the blockade of Nuremberg, formed by Wallenstein, had not imitated the example of Eumenes, for 14,000 of those noble animals, the pride and strength of his army, fell also in the Swedish camp along with their masters. These horses, that are wrought severely at times, are generally put to grass during their inactive season, which holds them in the state of continual purgation.

From these quadrupeds that are under the management of men, we pass to other animals, left wholly to the freedom of their instinct; and we find the hand which deprives the bears and the fowls of their labours, that rest and sleep through the winter, also deprives them of their ordinary food.

It would be happy for the country-people of Egypt, for the northern nation, and all other reduced to their annual situation, during the inundation, and the severity of the frost, if they would imitate the sportive dog, left to his freedom; because nature does not allow that men should be deprived of food, as is the case with the sleepers; for like the dog, they have their ordinary food; but ignorant of their impending fate, they reject the example of that quadruped, (who like them is formed for labours,) and unhappily fold their hands, shut their eyes, and go to rest, like those animals that sleep for a season.

By these proofs it appears, that the active and laborious part of mankind, have no more a right to indulge in the indolent situation of the first class, than these have to enjoy the exercise of the second, or endure the labours of the third class.

The distress of the active and laborious, has, and must ever prove sure and its consequences fatal, the enjoyment of exercise, and far more the performance of labour to the indolent, is impossible; because as has been observed in Part II. the natural strainness of their larger blood-vessels will not suffer their natural quantity of blood to circulate, during such attempts.

To render man's existence less precarious, or something more than the life of the fleeting insect of a day, it would seem

See Capt. Latham's letter, of the *Tiger* man of war, dated Madagascar, Sept. 9, 1754, published in the *Gentleman's magazine* for April 1755. He made his men bathe every day in the sea; none only were sick in his ship, whereas a ship of war, of equal numbers, that sailed in company with him, had two hundred sick; they not observing Capt. Latham's method.

As every country gentleman knows these particulars, it seems unnecessary to give a detail of facts. *J. Jovv. An. Urb. 150. 171.* *Harte's life of Gustavus* vol. 2. p. 173.

seem that while the indolent are enjoying their relief by the natural perspiration, in their usual stations, the active should take that degree of perspiration above the natural, which their ordinary exercise procures; and the laborious should procure that great degree of perspiration they require, by continuing their daily toils, wherever their station may be fixed. If the christian nations would hope to escape the plague, supposed hitherto to have come from the Turkish empire, they ought to have no greater dread, nor use no other precaution against Egyptian fevers, than from those of European growth; that the timid ought to keep ten or twenty yards from the presence of any evil; or if they chuse to fly further off, their labours should accompany them. As every nation would wish to preserve the brave from the ordinary miseries which have desolated fleets, and thinned the ranks of armies, baffling the schemes of the great, and rendering war itself, beyond description, destructive; it would seem, that an article should be added to the present articles of war, by which the sea and the land captains may be made answerable for the lives of their men; for they may enjoy full perspiration by the performance of a dance, when on shipboard and by other manly exercises when at land, (and it is in their power to keep at a little distance from scenes of great distress.) The princes of the east, in time of famine, and those of the north, during the severity of the winter, ought to provide for their people some kind of labour, regularly to be performed. The nations bordering upon the Nile, during the overflow of that river, in imitation of their ancient sires, should rear monuments of human grandeur, for the world to gaze on, to consider and admire. Happy had it been for the Egyptians in Grand Cairo, who died during the inundation of 1580, had they been digging the grand canal projected of old*. The merchants trading in slaves along the African coasts seem to have a cheap remedy in their power, by which shoals of negroes may be preserved, who must otherwise be destroyed in times to come, as they have been hitherto, before they arrive in the sugar islands. The Africans have been remarkably fond of music and dancing through all ages, they, no doubt, might be easily brought to enjoy this cheap amusement on the deck, and in small numbers in turns, and its effects, as stated times, when the weather proved favourable; and when the violence

of the winds, or a high sea did not suffer them to stand above, they could have their dance and music in the hold.

In Part I. we stated the established theories in physic, concerning the primary cause of these universal calamities; and finding, upon a comparison of various evidence, that it did not exist in the air, in climate or in diet, as has been hitherto imagined, we sought for it, therefore in the human frame itself, the only remaining object in nature, in which it could exist. In Part II. we divide mankind into three classes, *viz.* indolent, active, and laborious, which gave an opportunity of considering the effect of the motion of the heart and lungs in widening the larger blood-vessels, during inaction, exercise, and labour. A space above the natural measure was discovered to exist in the blood-vessels, of the active and laborious, which as soon as exercise and labour seized, must necessarily be held full of inactive matter; this important and dangerous circumstance, existing in the vitals of the human frame, seemed to demand daily a degree of perspiration above the natural, to rid the constitution of it, and that conformable to the condition of each class. In Part III. we were led to consult historical evidence, in order to be informed how this cause should operate, and from the uniformity of these vast and dreadful events that have befallen the human race, in every quarter of the globe, as often as exercise and labour have been for some considerable time interrupted, we are led to conclude, that the original cause of the pestilence or plague, according to that extensive appellation with the ancients, is the superfluous matter obstructed: So that the various names this disease has received in latter ages, of *true plague, camp fever, dysentery, black scurvy, &c.* seem to belong to the same misery, and may be prevented from taking place in the world, if men yield obedience to the calls of nature.

A regard to truth, and the dictates of our heart, not the love of victory, the preservation of men, and not the name of a discoverer, led us into this disquisition, and were our favourite objects.

[We have had no intention thro' this essay to consider the effect of climate upon tender people, nor the difference betwixt the air of town and country, no more than with the distress of particular persons, nor what food is best; neither has it any connection with other epidemics and their origin, such as small pox, measles, chincoough, &c. more than with the reigning evil among the hor-

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ned cattle. The facts stated serve to prove, that the hot climate of the West-Indies is more favourable for the lower class of mankind, when reduced to a state of inaction, than the temperate climates of Europe and North-America; and during this situation, the effects of salt food is manifestly, favourable: For when the diet is fresh, then die in a few days illness; but when it is salted, the disease takes often several weeks to kill, and gives men a chance of recovering by the help of greens, &c. Yet although these facts serve to prove this much, we would not be understood to say, that the climate of Jamaica is equally favourable to the people of Britain with that of their own country, or that salt food is as natural a nourishment as fresh; the numerous accidents that have befallen Europeans settled in Asia, Africa, and the sugar islands, and the shattered constitutions the few who survive bring home, shews, that men are like trees, they thrive best in their native land. It would likewise seem that the blood-vessels, of both the active and laborious contract, and may be reduced to their natural size in the course of years. Every gentleman may remember this circumstance, by what he has felt at different times, from his difficulty or ease in breathing, when performing his exercises. Old sailors in the king's service keep their health, and soldiers in time of peace, when they have little work to do; and ploughmen commence shepherds in their old age. These changes are not found to prove fatal, tho' an ill state of health is generally the attendant.

The above piece (the author observes,) has fallen under the notice of the Critical Review, for July last, and the Monthly, for September. The first these papers treat it with civility, altho many objections are made, and trifles set forth, which seem unworthy of that gentleman, who is supposed to have penned the article. But the author of the medical part of the Monthly Review, has lost his temper with it intirely. Never did Monk from his cell, write with more bitterness against a Protestant, nor Cardinal in his palace, express greater contempt for the production of a reformer, than the gentleman has done for this treatise; and without venturing to give a fair extract of a single line of it, or saying one word to the point; he throws out a load of scurrilous language, altogether unworthy of any body.

ANSWER to QUESTION 1. p. 416, in our Magazine for 1754. By the Proposer, James Hemingway.

LET r = radius = 124 v = versed sine = 3 chains and s = sine of half the arch AEB in Gunter's chains.

Then will $r^2 = 124^2 - v^2$ per 35 El. 3.

And $\frac{2r - v \times v^{\frac{1}{2}} \times 10r - 3v \times 2v}{5r - 2v \times 3}$ = area ABEA, *proximé* = $\frac{37000 \times 7^{\frac{1}{2}}}{3}$ = 5,56309327 acres. Consequently 1631l. 10s. 11d. is the answer.

S I R,

IN your Magazine for May last, p. 52, I read of a rock which hath, till now, laid under low water; and Mr. C. Morton is the first (skilful pilot) that hath split upon it; but to prevent such terrible accidents for the future, please to let him know,

That if $\frac{tru - tru + 2tu}{2}$ = amount = $ptr + p$; the same rate of interest is allowed to the purchaser, and the vender.

Hence $p = \frac{1 \times r + 2}{tr + 1} \times \frac{tu}{2}$. And after the purchase, the rate of interest allowed to both parties, may be, from the equation above, found = $\frac{tu - p}{2p + u - tu} \times \frac{1}{t}$.

DEMONSTRATION.

First $\frac{1 \times r + 2}{tr + 1} \times \frac{tu}{2}$ and $2p + u - tu \times \frac{1}{t} = \frac{1 + 1 \times tu}{tr + 1}$ by making restitution for p , in the canon for 2 . Consequently $\frac{tu - p}{2p + u - tu} \times \frac{1}{t} = \frac{tru}{tu}$.

Q E D.

Thus Mr. C. Morton's material error is corrected, by S R 2,

Norwich, June 7, 1759.

Your humble servant, and constant reader,
JAMES HEMINGWAY,
Teacher of the mathematics, and land surveyor.

SOLUTION

SOLUTION to a QUESTION in the London Magazine, 1769, p. 373, by the Proposer, Mr. J. Browne, of Skinner's Street, Spittle Fields.

PUT $AB = x$, $CD = z$, $BC = y = 80$, and $EB = m = 3$; then, per trigonometry as sine, $1 : 26 : m :: 88 : 34 : x =$ nearly 120 feet for the breadth of the river, and per similar triangles, as $x : m :: x + z : z = 5$ feet, the height of the observer's eye from the surface.

It was also answered, pretty nearly as above, by Mr. William Marshall, of Faxeet.

ANSWER to the FIRST QUESTION, of Philomathes, p. 211. By Mr. Richard Walton, of Woodplumpton.

IN the annexed figure, AB represents the parallel of latitude, A the place the first ship sailed from, B the place the second sailed from, and C the port they arrived at: Consequently CD will be the difference of latitude, $= 100 = y$. Put $BC = a$; then, per question, as $2 : 3 :: 3a : AC$; (and, by *Ex. 47. 1.*)

$\sqrt{\frac{9aa}{4} - yy} = AD$, and $\sqrt{aa - yy} = BD$; therefore

$\sqrt{\frac{9aa}{4} - yy} + \sqrt{aa - yy} = 156 = AB$: From whence $a = 105.44 = BC$,

the distance sailed by the second ship, whose course is $N. 18^\circ 30' W.$ and $AC = 158.16$, the distance sailed by the first ship, whose course $N. 50^\circ 47' E.$

This Question was answered also by Mr. John Chapman, of St. Mary Cray, Kent; Mr. D. Gravier; Mr. Turner Boston, of Biggleswade, Bedfordshire; Master E. Rawstone; Hindonensis; Mr. G. Browne, of Portsmouth-Common. Mr. Walton also answered Philomathes's second Question, p. 211, which had been before answered, p. 253; as did also Mr. Peter Pegus, of the Rev. Mr. Green's Academy, in Denmark Street, Soho; Hindonensis; and Mr. W. Miles, of Bristol.

QUESTION in the London Magazine for April, p. 210, ANSWERED by the Proposer, Mr. George Brown, Writing-Master and Teacher of the Mathematics, at Portsmouth-Common.

IN the triangle ABC , let BD be \perp to AC :

Put $AC = x$, $BD = y$, $AD = DC = z$;

then will $AD = \frac{x+z}{2}$ and $DC = \frac{x-z}{2}$, and

per *47. Ex. 1.* $BC^2 = \frac{4y^2 + x^2 - 2xz + z^2}{4}$,

and $BA^2 = \frac{4y^2 + x^2 + 2xz + z^2}{4}$; then, per

question, $4y^2 + x^2 + z^2 = \frac{4x^2}{3}$, or $4y^2 + z^2 = \frac{1}{3}x^2$; $\therefore y = \sqrt{\frac{x^2 - 3z^2}{12}}$;

consequently $\sqrt{\frac{x^2 - 3z^2}{12}}$ the difference of the areas of the triangles ADB

and CDB , per question, must be a maximum, or $x^2 - 3z^2$ put into fluxions

$2x^2 - 6z^2 = 0$; $\therefore x = \sqrt{3}z$. Now supposing $x = 6$, then will $z = \sqrt{6}$,

$z = \sqrt{6}$, $DC = \frac{6 - \sqrt{6}}{2}$, and $AD = \frac{6 + \sqrt{6}}{2}$; whence $AC + AB + CB =$

12.5554 , and area $= \sqrt{17} \cdot 12.5554 : \sqrt{17} :: 309 : 3097.712$ chains, the

required area of the triangular field, QED .

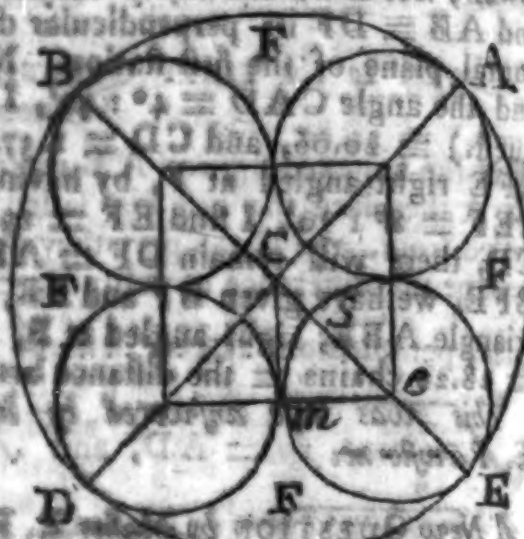
A New Question, by the same.

SUPPOSE the curve VEA be a cubical parabola, whose length is 100; and let the curve VDA be a common parabola, V the vertex of both. Required to find VB and BA, when the curve VDA is a maximum?



QUESTION by Mr. Turner Boston, in the London Magazine for April, p. 210. ANSWERED by the same.

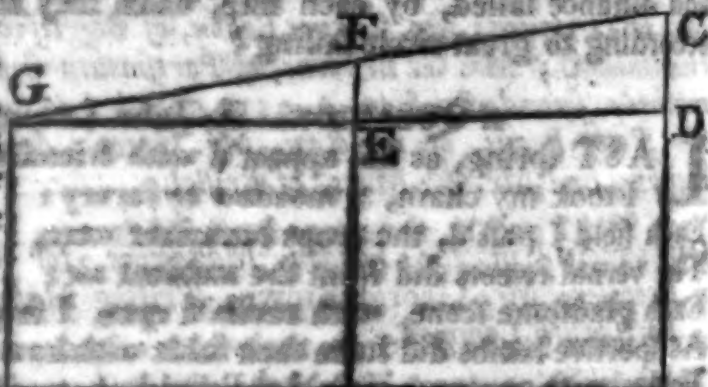
SINCE the area of the circle CABDE is $\pi r^2 = 100$ acres, the radius CB is found ≈ 17.841223 chains equal a , $EC = CM = x$, then $CE = a - x$, and, per 47 Ex. 1. $CE^2 = CM^2 + ME^2$, i. e. $(a - x)^2 = x^2 + ME^2$ and $x^2 + 2ax = a^2$, $\therefore x = a + \sqrt{a^2 - 1} \approx 7.3900665$ chains. When the area of the space C is ≈ 46.879876 square chains ≈ 4 A. ≈ 30.078016 P. the illegitimate son's share of land; area of one of the four equal circles ≈ 171.57246 square chains ≈ 17 A. ≈ 23.15936 P. each legitimate son's share of land; area of the space F is ≈ 66.7075725 square chains ≈ 6 A. ≈ 27.32116 P. each daughter's share of land.



This Question was also answered by Hindonienst.

SOLUTION to G. P. M.'s QUESTION, p. 210. By Mr. W. Miles, of Bristol.

DRAW $AB = 420$ feet, the distance from the summer-house to the obelisk, and on the points A and B, raise the perpendiculars AG and BC; make $AG = 25$ feet, the height of the summer-house, and $BC = 42$ feet, the height of the obelisk; then take $\frac{299}{240}$ feet from A to H, and on the point



H, erect the perpendicular HE, which make $\approx AG$; then from G, and parallel to AB, draw $GD = AB$, meeting BC in D; then draw the right line GC, and extend HE to F; then we have GD, GE, and DC, given to find EF; and by similar triangles, we have $GD : DC :: GE : EF$. Consequently $GD \times EF = DC \times GE$; therefore, $EF = \frac{DC \times GE}{GD} = 8 \frac{195763}{352800}$ feet, which, added

to HE, gives $33 \frac{195763}{352800}$ feet, the height the water must rise from the fountain, to be in a right line with the top of the summer-house and obelisk.

SOLUTION to the same QUESTION of G. P. M. p. 210. By Mr. Turner Boston, of Biggleswade.

GIVEN $AC = 25 = a$, $AB = 211.3559 = b$, $BD = 208.6441 = c$, $DE = 42 = d$. Let $x =$ height the water must rise $= Bf$, then $b : x - a :: c : d - x \therefore x = 33.5548$ feet.



Solved also, by Mr. John Chapman, of St. Mary Cray, Kent, and Mr. J. Browne, of Skinner's Acre, Spittlefields.

PROBLEM.

PROBLEM.

REQUIRED, a general theorem, to find the number of spots on all the bottom cards, when the pack is laid out in several heaps, viz. Lay down as many cards in a heap, the bottom card included in the number, as will make the number of specks on the bottom card equal to any number (fixed on) at pleasure, not exceeding 53.

ANSWER to Mr. Giles's QUESTION, p. 211. By Hindonensis.

LET CD be the height of the tower above the horizontal plane of the first station A, due north of the tower; let E be the second station due east of the tower; and AB = DF its perpendicular distance below the horizontal plane of the first station. Now, from AD = 20, and the angle CAD = $4^{\circ} 30'$, I find CA (= CE per quest.) = 20.06, and CD = 1.574; also, in the triangle CFE right-angled at F, by having CE, and the angle CEF = $2^{\circ} 30'$, I find EF = 19.84, and FC = 2.965, from which last taking CD, there will remain DF = AB = 1.391. Then in the right-angled triangle BFE, we have given BF and FE, by which BE is found = 28.17. Lastly, in the triangle ABE, right-angled at B, are given AB and BE, by which AE is found = 28.20 chains = the distance between the two stations.

This was also answered by Mr. J. Browne, of Skinner's street, and Master E. Rawstorne.

A New QUESTION by Master E. Rawstorne, at Great Houghton School, Yorkshire.

A Ship sails the nearest course to the equator, from a port in latitude 10° north, at the rate of 4 miles an hour, and, at the same time, another sails from a port under the equinoctial, to the northern port, at the rate of 5 miles an hour; now the difference of longitude of the two ports is 5° . I desire to know the latitude come to, and distance sailed, by each ship, when they are at the nearest distance to each other, according to great circle sailing?

A QUESTION By John Lewin, Schoolmaster, at Syfton.

LAST Spring, as Sol appear'd with friendly ray,

I took my chain, a meadow to survey:

Each field I pass'd, the crops luxuriant were,

The vernal sweets did scent the ambient air:

Each glad scene, with ravish'd eyes, I saw,

As sportive lambs did from their folds withdraw:

I next, with rapture, view'd the meadow round,

Which I an oblique, plain triangle found *;

Whole base, from A to B, when measur'd o'er,

By Gunter's chain, did make just twice a score;

The perpendicular P was in proportion,

To that of th' base, exact as four to one.

Then back I jogg'd, and left the verdant ground,

And told its acres, which with ease are found:

Like this, from hence, each side be pleas'd to tell,

Also the line that's mark'd with letter L;

And where that line upon the base must fall,

To equally divide the same * withal?

QUESTION I. By Mr. Robert Langley.

ARTISTS, view th' equations * I propose,

Then the maiden name please to disclose,

Of a beautiful and worthy fair,

At Wellingborough, in Northamptonshire.

$xy + u + w + y = 57, x^2 + y^2 - z^2 = 286, \frac{w-y}{2x} + \frac{w-y}{2x} =$

$x - z = 2, x^2 + x^2 - 3x = 6658, x = 2y, -$

$x^2 - 2x = 304, x^2 + x^2 - 3x = 6658, x = 2y, -$

$x^2 - 2x = 304, x^2 + x^2 - 3x = 6658, x = 2y, -$

$x^2 - 2x = 304, x^2 + x^2 - 3x = 6658, x = 2y, -$

$x^2 - 2x = 304, x^2 + x^2 - 3x = 6658, x = 2y, -$

$x^2 - 2x = 304, x^2 + x^2 - 3x = 6658, x = 2y, -$

Her christian name is Eliza-

Appendix, 1759. 4 Y bath,

both, and his surname consists of five letters, having their places in the alphabet, expressed by the values of u , v , x , y , and z , in the preceding equations; by means whereof it may be discovered, without having the root of any selected equation, to extract higher than a quadratic.

QUESTION II. *By the same.*

GIVEN, the two principal diameters of an ellipse = 61, and 47,5 respectively. 'Tis required, to determine the greatest parallelogram that can possibly be described in a segment thereof, whose area = 215,8802, and base parallel to the ellipse's transverse diameter.

Wellingborough, Nov. 10, 1759.

Master Isaacson, of Lavenham School, Suffolk, and Master Gier, of Mr. Browne's School, Portsmouth Common, favoured us with Solutions of two Questions which had been already solved. Thus having, at last, cleared accounts with our ingenious mathematical correspondents, to this time, we thank them for their repeated favours, and shall, as often as we can, oblige them for the future.

Some Extracts from the Letter to Two great Men, continued from p. 637.

THE letter-writer, still on the subject of North-America, goes on thus:

"The truth of the matter is, they were tired of Canada. The inclemency of the climate, the difficult access to it, and a trade scarcely defraying the expence of the colony, would long ago have induced them to abandon it, if the plan of extending its boundaries, at the expence of the English, and of opening its communication with Louisiana and with the Ocean, had not made them persevere.—Canada itself is not worth their asking; and if they do desire to have it restored to them, it can only be with a view to repeat the same injuries and infidelities, to punish which we engaged in the present war. Unless, therefore, we be resolved, with our eyes open, to expose ourselves to a repetition of former encroachments; unless we would chuse to be obliged to keep great bodies of troops, in America, in full peace, at an immense expence; we can never consent to leave the French any footing in Canada. If we do not exclude them, absolutely and entirely, from that country, we shall soon find we have done nothing. Let the treaty be drawn ever so accurately; let the boundaries between Canada and our colonies be described ever so precisely, and regulated ever so much in our favour; what has happened already ought to teach us what we may expect again. The future treaty will be observed no better than the former have been: Usurpation and encroachment will gradually revive; and thus shall we have thrown away all our successes: So many millions will have been expended to no purpose; and the blood of so many thousands of our brave countrymen spilt, only to remind us, that though we knew how to conquer, we knew not how to improve, perhaps, the only opportunity we shall ever have, of putting it out of the power of France to violate its faith."

And, lastly, he touches upon the Affairs of Germany, as follows:

"It may be collected, from more than one hint dropt in the course of this letter, that I am no friend to continental measures in general; especially such continental measures as engaged us during the three last wars, as principals; when we seemed eager to ruin ourselves in support of that Austrian family, whom we now find, with unparalleled ingratitude, and incredible folly, in close alliance with France.—But the continental measures now adopted by England were necessary, both with regard to our honour and our interest. Hanover has been attacked by France, on a quarrel entirely English; and though care was taken, by the act of settlement, that England should not be involved in wars on account of Hanover; yet gratitude, honour the reputation of our country, every motive of generosity bound us, not to allow the innocent electorate to be ruined for England's American quarrel with France. In regard to our interest, no English minister, however inflexible in his attachment to his native country, could have devised the means of making the best use of our American conquests; if the French could have treated with Hanover in their hands. It was with a view to prevent this, to oppose the French in their projects in Germany, the success of which would have been so detrimental to England, that we honestly and wisely have formed and have maintained the army now commanded by prince Ferdinand, and having entered into alliance with the king of Prussia.

But though this was a measure of prudence, it was scarcely possible for the wisest statesmen to foresee all those great consequences which it hath already produced. The efforts which the French have made in Germany, and the resistance they have there met with by the arms of the British administration, have contributed more than perhaps we could expect, to our success in America, and other parts of the world. Full of the project of conquering Hanover, France saw herself obliged to engage in exorbitant expences; armies were to be paid and maintained in Westphalia and on the Rhine.

Rhine; vast sums were to be advanced to the court of Vienna, always as indigent as it is haughty; the ravenous Russians, and the degenerate Swedes, would not move, unless allured by subsidies; and the mouth of every hungry German prince was to be kept with the louis d'ors of France. Involved in expences thus enormous, our enemies have been prevented from strengthening themselves at sea, where England had most reason to dread their becoming strong.

The infinite advantages which this nation hath reaped from the German war, are indeed now so well understood, that we have seen the greatest enemies of this measure acknowledge their mistake.

They now confess that if we had not resisted France, in her projects of German conquests, her best troops had not been destroyed; her own coasts would have been better protected; she would have been able to pay more attention to her American concerns; England might have been threatened so seriously with invasions, as to be afraid of parting with those numerous armies which have conquered at such a distance of time. In a word, that universal bankruptcy, which hath crowned the distresses of France, and gives England greater reason of exultation, than any event of the war, might have been prevented. It is entirely owing to the German part of the war, that France appears thus low in the political scale of strength and riches; that she is found to be a sinking monarchy, nay a monarchy already sunk. And perhaps it might be an enquiry worthy of another Montequieu, to assign the causes of the rise and fall of the French monarchy; and to point out those silent principles of decay, which have, in our times, made so rapid a progress, that France in 1712, after upwards of twenty years almost constant war, maintained against all Europe, was still more respectable, and less exhausted than it now appears to be, when the single arm of Great-Britain is lifted up against her, and the war has lasted no more than three or four years.

If this then be the state of the war in Germany; if England be bound to take a part in it, by every motive of honour and interest; and if the infinite advantages it hath already produced, be stated fairly—the inference I would draw, and which I believe the whole nation will also draw, is, that we should continue to exert those endeavours which hitherto have been so effectual, in defeating the designs of France, to get possession of Hanover.

His majesty, as elector of Hanover, has no views of ambition; His country has been attacked only because it belonged to the king of Great-Britain; and nothing more is required of us, but to be true to ourselves, by taking no step that may prevent Hanover from falling again into the hands of France, after having been so miraculously rescued from the contrivances of the rapacious Richieu,

and saved from the military desert of Belle Isle.—I need not say any thing of the glory acquired by that army, which, notwithstanding its great inferiority, hath driven the French twice from the Weser to the Rhine. I shall only observe, that the next campaign (if another campaign should precede the peace) will, in all probability, lose us none of the advantages we have gained, on that side; if our army, still headed by prince Ferdinand, who has already gained so many laurels, be rendered more formidable, as I hope it will, by sending to it *some thousands* more of our national troops; who now since the conquest of Canada and the defeat of the long threatened invasion, have no other scene of action left, but to contribute to another victory in Germany.

And with regard to the king of Prussia, after giving us hopes that he will still be able to hold out, he observes thus:

“But if contrary to our hopes, our wishes, our endeavours, this should fail; if his Prussian majesty, like a lion caught in the toils (after a resistance already made, which will hand him down to posterity as the greatest of men) should at last be unable to defend himself; let him not despair while he is in alliance with Britain: For I would inculcate a doctrine, which I think will not be unpopular amongst my countrymen, and which therefore I hope, will not be opposed by our ministers, *That whatever conquests we have made, and whatever conquests we may still make upon the French, except North-America, which must be kept all our own; should be looked upon as given back to France for a most important consideration, if it can be the means of extricating the king of Prussia from any unforeseen distresses.*”

And he concludes the whole with observing, and lamenting the danger, to which our happy constitution now lies exposed, whereupon he has this melancholy reflection:

“That unless something can be done to bring back our constitution to its first principles, we shall find, that we have triumphed, only to make ourselves as wretched as our enemy; that our conquests are but a poor compensation for the loss of our liberties; in a word, that like Wolfe falling in the arms of victory, we are most gloriously—*undone!*”

With which reflection, that it may remain impressed upon the minds of our readers, we shall conclude these extracts.

A Short History of the Origin and Progress of the Military Exercise, &c. continued from p. 649.

WHEN the use of fire-arms began to be generally established, the necessity of a great regularity and uniformity, in the manner of using these arms, became apparent: It was soon discovered, that those troops which could make the briskest fire, and sustain it longest, had a great superiority over others less expert: And likewise, that the efficacy and power of fire did not consist in random and scattering shots, made without

without order, but in the fire of a body of men at once, and that properly timed and directed: It was therefore necessary to exercise the troops in loading quick, and firing together, by the word of command; but as the want of wisdom, carelessness, and rashness, of young soldiers, (if left to themselves) must occasion frequent accidents, and cause the loss of many of their own party, by the unskillful manner of using fire-arms, especially in the hurry of an engagement, it became a matter of indispensable necessity to teach soldiers an uniform method of performing each action that was to be done with the musket; that they might all do it in the most expeditious and safe manner. In order to effect this, it was necessary to analyse and reduce the compound motion of each action into the several simple motions that it was composed of: This made each action easier to be learned and remembered; and by teaching the soldiers to perform the simple motions in the same manner, and in the same time, making a pause between each, it rendered them exact in the performance of the whole action. This is the origin of what is called the manual exercise, which, when it was once invented, (besides the real utility of it) made troops to show so much advantage, and their motions appeared so regular and beautiful, that it soon was copied by other nations, and came into general use. The Spaniards were most probably the inventors of it, as they were the first who made use of muskets; and their infantry was at that time the best in Europe. Even the French, who are so ready upon the slightest grounds, to put in their claim for the honour of all useful inventions and improvements, acquiesce in this (Brantome, *log. de D. d'Albe & de M. Strasz.*) and own, that they learned the use of the musket from the Spaniards (*Hist. mil. Fransi. vol. 1. p. 277.*) and that they never had any regular discipline, or exercise, till they took it from the Dutch; whose army in Flanders was at that time the great school, where all who had a desire to attain military knowledge, went to learn it under prince Maurice of Nassau, who is frequently styled, *The Swedes appear to have been the first that practised firing by two or three ranks at a time; as Rudiger has it.*

When ever one another's hand, They charge, three ranks at once, like Swedes.
It may be seen in *Sir Robert Mowbray's Memoirs, and Burdett's Young Artillery-Man, &c.* The firing by platoons, is generally said to be a Dutch invention; though the life of Gustavus Adolphus, lately published, gives it to that monarch. We have looked into Sir Robert Mowbray's book; and sent others that treat expressly of military affairs, and of the Swedish discipline in particular; and cannot find the least reason for acquiescing in that opinion, but rather the contrary; and we cannot help thinking, that the author confounds Gustavus's method, of posting platoons of musketeers amongst his cavalry, with the platoons firing by battalions, which are things totally different from one another.
† *Lewis the XIVth, in 1662, employed Monsi. Martini, to regulate and discipline his infantry, after the Dutch manner. He was first lieutenant-colonel, and afterwards colonel of the regiment de vel, or the king's own regiment; which was then the pattern. He was killed at the siege of Dordrecht, in 1672. His name is become, amongst our military gentlemen, a term of sneer and reproach, as often applied to such officers as show the rest of their troops, by being more efficient and exact in the performance of their duty, than just the living of the young, or the indolence of the old men.*

continued to till within these few years so that was extravagant, beyond belief; and, but that the amazing victories and successes of the Prussians have excited the attention and admiration of all nations; and put them upon endeavouring to learn and imitate that wonderful military establishment and discipline which has enabled Frederick the 1st. the prodigy of our age to perform such amazing exploits, we have already, what ever may be his future destiny, given him a title to the highest rank among the most sublime military geniuses, and greatest generals that the world has produced.

The alteration and improvement of the Prussian discipline was originally the work of the present king's father, Frederick William 1st. king of Prussia, whose character and actions delineated by a masterly and impartial hand, would compose a work equally curious and entertaining. We should then behold a prince, who might properly be called military mad, without any real military genius; scrupulously attached and bigotted to the minutest formalities, and we may say, superstitious, of the ceremonial detail and parade; but never shewing any signs of his being master of the great operations of war, or the sublime parts of military science: In short, much better to be a drill sergeant, or adjutant, than a king, or a general. Who, though truly religious, and in most instances a man of rigid virtue and strict morality; yet, from his immoderate fondness for troops, joined to the austerity and violence of his temper, acted like a mere tyrant, and governed his family, and subjected with the stern harshness and barbarity of a Muley Ishmeel, indeed, the force and prevalence of an European education, and manners, had so far in its influence upon him, as to prevent his being as bloody. But he exerted the natural roughness, and unfeelingness of his disposition, in breaking his troops to an obedient, and severe verity of discipline, unheard of before in Europe; which transformed men into mere machines, moved and actuated solely by the will and command of their officers; and which a man of a milder and more humane turn could not have attempted to have established: A slave in Turkey being in a state of much less constraint, and servile subordination, than that of his soldiers, or even of his officers. His passion for tall men was extravagant, beyond belief; and, to recruit his great useless regiment of giants, he spared no expense, although contrary to his own disposition; nor in order to inveigle, or even kidnap a tall man, did his officers stick at fraud, perjury, or the grossest violations of the laws of society and of nations; which he always condoned, and oftentimes avowed. His whole country was one great garrison; every man who was handsome, and had a full person, was compelled to serve; even children were enlisted from their birth, and their parents were accountable for them to the regiment to which they were allotted: In short, every thing was made subservient to the military extravagance of the monarch, without the least regard to justice or humanity. But as his troops were to him merely what dolls are to children, or ornaments which to the ladies, not for use, but amusement or parade; and his whole pleasure and employment was the adjusting of their dress and accoutrements, which he would do with his own hands, and the exercising and reviewing them; he never chose to expose them to the dangers or fatigues of war, perhaps, indeed, in some measure, for fear they should all desert. All this, added to the particularity, and even finicalness of their dress and appearance, caused them, in his life-time, to be looked upon as mere puppets, fit only for show, but could be of no use or service in real action; and they, and their discipline, were in general the subject of ridicule amongst the military men of other nations. But when Frederick the 1st. succeeded to the crown of Prussia, his penetrating genius quickly distinguished and retrenched all that was trifling and useless, from what was of real utility; and sensible of the advantages which that strictness of discipline and exact obedience, to which his troops were broken and habituated, gave him, he did not fear attacking, with his then raw and unexperienced forces, the rough old warriors of the house of Austria; and soon convinced them, at the battles of Mollwitz, Freyberg, and on many other occasions, that what is absurd and contemptible, in the hands of a little genius, becomes great and formidable, in those of a prince of sublime understanding, and superior talents. And as the author

Frederick William, besides his passion for tall men, had a very great fondness for broad faces; in order, therefore, that his soldiers might appear to the utmost advantage, in these two points, and not without a view to economy, he caused their coats to be made so very short, that they barely reached half way down their thighs; and so scanty in the body and sleeves, that they could scarce put them on: Their breeches reached scarcely down to their knees, and their hats were so small, as hardly to cover their heads, so that they were forced to have a contrivance to pin them on, for fear of their falling off when they were exercising. All their hair was all queued back, and powdered, with only one or two small curls in each side of the face; to this was added square-toed shoes, with high heels; a long sword, with a broad blade, stuck very high upon the hip; and white garters, which, as well as the waistcoat and breeches (which were generally white also) were continually chalked, to keep them clean; for the least spot of dirt on any of them was punished with the utmost severity. This appeared the most extraordinary, as at that time the prevailing fashion of dress was every where totally different; and being added to a sort of uprightness and stiffness in their air and manner, was peculiar to themselves, made them really have very much the appearance of puppets.

then of the Ministers of the house of Brandenburg, (who is generally supposed to be the king himself) observes, that, though the eager desire of the elector Frederick the Third, for the title of king, and the extraordinary pains which he took to get it conferred upon him by the emperor, were in him only the effect of his violent fondness for state and pre-eminence; and proceeded merely from a puerile and ridiculous vanity: Yet, that the acquisition of the royalty has been, in process of time, of the greatest advantage to the house of Brandenburg, by exciting and combining it to throw off the dependence and subjection, in which it was to the house of Austria. As we may add, that the extravagant passion of Frederick-William for troops, and for all kinds of military discipline and parade; and the excess he carried it to, though it deservedly exposed him to contempt and ridicule, did, in a great measure, lay the foundation for the glorious victories and immortal fame of his son.

[To be concluded in our Mag. for January.]

ADDITIONS TO DECEMBER.

Extract of a Letter from Capt. Richard Maitland, of the Royal Regiment of Artillery, dated Bombay, May 8, 1759.

"SINCE my last, nothing particular has happened to the detachment, until February, when I was ordered by the governor and council to take the command of an expedition against the city and castle of Surat, my command consisting of 250 artillery and infantry, with 200 seapoys.

I embarked my troops on board the company's armed vessels, and in eight days landed them all safe at a place called Dendlowry, distant from Surat about nine miles, where we encamped for the refreshment of the troops three or four days: In our first day's march from the above encampment, Capt. John Northall died of an apoplectic fit, and was succeeded in the company by Capt. Joseph Winter. The first attack that I made was against the French garden, where the enemies (Scydees) had lodged a number of men; then I drove out, after a very smart firing on both sides for about four hours; our number lost consisting of about 20 men killed, and as many wounded. After we had got possession of the French garden, I thought it necessary to order the engineer to pitch upon a proper place to erect a battery, which he did, and completed it in two days.

On this battery were mounted two 24 pounders, and a 12 inch mortar, which I ordered to fire against the wall, &c. as brisk as possible: This I continued to do for three days.—Having thought of a more expedient method of getting into the outer town than by the breach of the wall, I called a council of war, composed of military and marine; formed a plan of a general attack, which I laid before them, and they readily agreed to, and this to be put into

execution at half past four the next morning. The plan was, that the company's grab and bomb-ketches should wrap up the river in the night, and anchor in a line of battle opposite the Scydees Bundar, one of the strongest fortified places they had got: This they did, and a general attack begun from the vessels and battery at the appointed time. My intentions in this were, to drive the enemy from their batteries, and to facilitate the landing of the infantry at the Bundar, whom I had embarked on board of boats for their transportation. We made a continual fire until half past eight, when a signal was made for the boats to put off, and to go under the cover of the vessels. This proved very successful, for the men were landed with the loss of one man only, getting possession of the Scydees Bundar, and putting the men to flight, with the loss of Capt. Robert Inglish mortally wounded, and Lieut. Pepperel wounded in the shoulder, our loss of men not very considerable.

Having gained this point, and getting possession of the outer town, with its fortifications, the next thing to be done was to attack the inner town and castle.

I ordered the thirteen and two ten-inch mortars to be planted on the Scydees Bundar, and to begin firing into the castle and town as soon as possible, distance from the castle about 200 yards, inner town 500.

About six in the evening the mortars began to play very briskly, and continued to do so until half past two the next morning. This continual firing of our mortars put the castle and town into such a consternation, that they never returned one gun. The enemy finding it impossible to support themselves, sent to acquaint me they would open the gates for my troops to march into the town, which I did, with drums beating and colours flying. After I was in the town, the governor sent to acquaint me that he would give me up the castle, on proviso, that I would allow him and his people to march out of the castle with their effects, which I agreed to, taking possession without any further molestation.

Royal artillery, Killed 2. Wounded 4.

In the company's infantry, Captains killed 2. Subaltern 1. Killed in all 150. Wounded about 60.

Our expedition commenced the 9th of February, and we arrived at Bombay the 15th of April.—(See p. 556, 647, and our Map of Surat, &c. p. 120.)

Letters from Gibraltar advise, that Mr. Milbank, who was lately sent to Morocco with two men of war, to treat about the ransom of the crew of the Litchfield man of war, and a transport that was wrecked last year on the barberry coast, is not able to succeed in his commission: For besides the sum of money required, which is very large, the emperor demands a certain number of cannon, with powder and ball answerable, and

to be Col. of the 6th regiment of foot—
Capt. Somerville, to be major to Burgoynes

to the vicarage of St. Peter's, in Colchester—
Mr. Smyth

cordage, tackle, &c. sufficient to equip four ships of war. (See p. 626.)

The bounties to seamen and landmen that shall voluntarily enter themselves on board his majesty's ships, and the rewards for discovering such seamen as conceal themselves, are prolonged to the 1st of February next. (See p. 628.)

Addresses have been presented to his majesty, from the aldermen, aspiral burgesses, and commonalty of the borough of Marlbury in Wiltshire, and the dean and clergy of Guernsey. (See p. 682.)

The East-Indie ships that put into the Brazils, (see p. 571) are arrived safely at Oporto, except the Tavistock, which sprung a leak, and was obliged to put back again.

In Paris 19, 125 children were baptized, 434 couples married, 19, 302 died during this year; and 5082 foundlings were taken into their foundling hospital in the same time.

Amsterdam, Dec. 31. The number of persons who have died in this city in 1759, amounts to 7771, and the christnings to 4317. One thousand two hundred and fifty two persons died at the plague in Holland, which were ten more than in the year before.

MARRIAGE and BIRTH.

Dec. 27. SAMUEL Benyon, of Shrewsbury, Esq; was married to Miss Yate.

29. Lady Bathurst, was delivered of a son.

DEATHS.

Dec. 25. THOMAS Stowe, Esq; custom-house inward, of Newcastle upon Tyne.

James Butler, of Little Banton, in Northumberland, Esq;.

27. Mr. David Lacy, of Limerick in Ireland, aged 112.

Hon. William Carmichael, of Skirling in North-Britain, advocate, aged 88.

23. Dr. Daniel Cox, an eminent physician.

ECCLESIASTICAL PREFERMENTS.

From the LONDON GAZETTE.

Whitchall, Dec. 22. Dr. Warburton was appointed bishop of Gloucester, in the room of Dr. Johnson, deceased.

From the rest of the PAPERS.

Rev. Mr. William Ellis, was presented to the vicarage of Thrinton-Abbey, in Lincolnshire.—George Townshend, B. A. to the vicarage of Halivell, in Cumberland.—Mr. Gilly, to the rectory of Hawdon, in Suffolk.—Mr. Murdin, to the vicarage of Ixning, in Suffolk.—Mr. Jacobs, to the vicarage of Gilsborough, in Northamptonshire.—Mr. Imber, to the rectory of North Chowtry, in Essex.—Mr. John Tooker, to the rectory of Chaldwoodley, in Devonshire.—Mr. Pittard, to the vicarage of Yaxley, in Huntingdonshire.—Mr. Smythies, to the vicarage of St. Peter's, in Colchester.

—Mr. Woodcock, to the rectory of St. Michael, Woodstreet, and St. Mary Staining.—Mr. Hodgkin, to the rectory of St. Martin, Colchester.—Mr. Welch, to the rectory of Rumbald in Essex.—William Harper, M. A. to the vicarage of Stanwell in Middlesex.—Dr. Terrick to a prebend of Durham.—Mr. Taylor, to the vicarage of Farley in Gloucestershire.—Mr. Hill, to the rectory of Watford, in Hertfordshire.—Mr. Dives, to the vicarage of Moulton in Staffordshire.—Mr. Carlton, to the rectory of Staple-grove in Hertfordshire.—Dr. Boulton created a doctor of divinity, by the university of Oxford.—A dispensation passed the seals to enable Samuel Kirkham, M. A. to hold the vicarage of Leeds, with the rectory of Ripley in Yorkshire.—To enable Mr. Hirst to hold the rectory of Bogworth, with the rectory of Little Shelford in Cambridgeshire.—To enable Mr. Jenkins, to hold the vicarage of Pashton in Lincolnshire, with the rectory of Loughton in Staffordshire.—To enable Mr. Filmer, to hold the rectory of Crundall, with the rectory of Hinxhall in Kent.—To enable Mr. Bedford to hold the rectories of Fillery and Lamoran in Cornwall.—To enable Mr. Edwards to hold the rectories of Abor and Llallychud in Carnarvonshire.—To enable Thomas Baker, M. A. to hold the rectories of Staverton and Ringmore in Devonshire.—To enable William Oliver, B. D. to hold the rectories of Ludcombe and Sidmarsh, in Shropshire.—To enable Henry Herbert, B. D. to hold the rectory of Kidger in Worcestershire, with the vicarage of Atherley-down in Staffordshire.

Promotions, Civil and Military.

From the LONDON GAZETTE.

WHITEHALL, Dec. 8. The King has been pleased to appoint Thomas Wroughton, Esq; to be consul general for the several parts of the Russian empire.

Admiralty-office, Dec. 8. The king has been pleased to appoint the Right Hon. Edward Boscawen, Esq; admiral of the blue to be general of the marine forces. And, Also to appoint Charles Saunders, Esq; vice admiral of the blue, to be lieutenant general of the said forces.

St. James's, Dec. 15. This day the Right Hon. Robert Nugent, Esq; was sworn of his majesty's most honorable privy council, and took his place at the board accordingly.

Whitchall, Dec. 22. James Oswald, Esq; was appointed a lord of the treasury.—Robert Nugent, Esq; with his cart of Sandwich, and Wellbore Ellis, Esq; vice treasurer, &c. of Ireland.

From the rest of the PAPERS.

John Ward, Esq; appointed his majesty's pursuivant at arms.—Henry Vandart, Esq; governor of Bengal, in the room of general Clive, who resigned.—Lieut. Gen. Oulow, governor of Plymouth.—George Carey, Esq; to be Col. of the 54th regiment of Foot.—Capt. Somerville, to be major to Burgoyne's light

light dragoon. — Brigadier Gen. James Murray, to be governor of Quebec. — George Williamson, Esq; to be Col. Thomas Flit, and Thomas Ord, Esq; to be lieutenant colonels, and John Godwin, Esq; major to a new battalion. — Christopher Testale, Esq; to be major of the third regiment of foot. — John Johnstone, Esq; to be major to the 6th regiment of foot. — Lewis Thomas, Esq; to be major of the ninth regiment of foot. — Richard Preston, Esq; to be major to the 40th regiment of foot. — Thomas Trougham, Esq; to be major to the 73d regiment of foot. — John Hale, Esq; to be lieutenant colonel commandant of a regiment of light dragoons. — Capt. John Blaquiere, to be major to the 68th regiment of foot. — Nathaniel Bateman, Esq; to be lieutenant colonel in the first troop of horse guards. — Hon. James West, eldest high steward of St. Albans, in the room of the late duke of Marlborough.

Alterations in the List of Parliament.

HAMPSHIRE. Right Hon. Henry Bilson Legge, in the room of the duke of Bolton.

Hastmire. Captain Molyneux, — of his brother, deceased.

Hartford. Lord Fordwich, — of George Harrison, Esq; deceased.

Ipswich. George Montgomery, Esq; of — Samuel Kent, Esq; deceased.

Leominster. Chas. Price, Esq; — of Sir Charles Hanbury Williams, deceased.

Montgomery. Edward Clive, Esq; — of William Bodvill, Esq; deceased.

Oakhampton. Admiral Rodney, — of Thomas Potter, Esq; deceased.

Orford. Col. Fitzroy, — of Right Hon. Henry Bilson Legge.

B—K—T.

JOHN Felton, of York, Mercer.

George Fitzgerald, of London, merchant.

Samuel Weaver, of Newgate Street, chesnutonger.

Francis Hooker, of St. Giles in the Fields, dealer and

Chapman.

John, Titley, of Warrington, full-cloth maker.

John Brown, of Chichester, vicar.

Roger Walker, of Manchester, dealer and chap-

man.

David Richard Milne, of Little Bell Alley, wine

chant.

Stephen Boyer, of Tillstone Fernhall, in Cheshire,

Cheshire.

Thomas Berresford, senior, of Gorton, Lancashire,

carrier.

James Stuart, of Whitby, linen-draper and mercer.

Charles Walford, of Ipswich, grocer.

Joseph Bezeley, of Limehouse, sugar-baker.

John Moody, of Thorne Key, in Yorkshire, ship car-

penter.

William Wilkham, of the Poultry, linen-draper.

Thomas Carter, of Yarm, butter factor.

John Denne, of Canterbury, linen draper.

Thomas Constable, of Bristol, merchant.

William Saunders, of Meard's court, tailor.

James Wilson, and Robinson Day, of St. Clement

Danes, wine, mercer, drapers and cap-makers.

Samuel Woodford, of Bristol, mercer.

Humphry Matthews, of Exeter, linen-draper.

Joseph Trylor, jun. of Ollerton, in Nottinghamshire,

inhabitant.

Francis Daniell, of Bristol, merchant.

Remainder of the CATALOGUE of BOOKS, for 1759.

MISCELLANEOUS.

1. **A** Treatise on the Law of Descents in Fee Simple. By William Blackstone, Esq; pr. 1s. 6d. Rivington. (See p. 673.)

2. The Great Charter, &c. with an introductory Discourse. By the same Hand, pr. 1s. Warrall.

3. Full Answers to the Queries in Defence of the Malt Distillery, pr. 1s. Scott.

4. An Essay on the present State of Theatres, pr. 2s. Pottinger.

5. Mr. Grove's Letter upon the glorious Success at Quebec, pr. 1s. Burd.

6. A Letter addressed to two great Men on the Prospect of a Peace, &c. price 1s. Millar. (See p. 634.)

7. A Letter from an Officer on Board the Royal George, pr. 6d. Burd.

8. Dr. Johnson's Apology for the Clergy, pr. 1s. H. Payne.

9. A Reply to the second Letter to a late noble Commander, pr. 6d. Woodfall.

10. A Defence of Mr. Garrick, pr. 1s. Stevens.

11. The Nature, Properties and Laws of Motion of Fire discovered, &c. By W. Hillary, M. D. pr. 2s. Davis and Reymers. (See p. 637.)

12. The State of the printed Hebrew Text of the Old Testament, Dissertation II. By Mr. Kennicott, pr. 5s. Rivington.

13. Every Farmer his own Farrier. By W. Ellis, pr. 2s. 6d. Davis and Reymers.

14. A Plan for arranging and balancing the Accounts of Landed Estates. By Corbys Morris, Esq; pr. 5s. Millar.

15. An Epistle to a noble Lord, pr. 6d. Williams.

16. The World Display'd, Vol. I. to be continued monthly, pr. 1s. 6d. Newberry.

17. A Military Dictionary, No. I. pr. 6d. Cooke.

18. The Retrospect, pr. 1s. Cade.

19. Historical and Political Mercury, pr. 1s. 6d. Townsend.

20. Further Observations on the Foundling Hospital, pr. 6d. Owen.

21. Discipline of the Norfolk Militia, pr. 6s. Shuckburgh. (See p. 609, 647.)

22. Much Ado about Nothing, pr. 1s. Hall.

23. A Letter from John Bland, pr. 6d. Reeve.

24. A Letter from John Patey, pr. 6d. Taylor.

25. Col. Fitzroy's Letter considered, price 6d. Cooper.

26. Thoughts on the pernicious consequences of borrowing Money, &c. pr. 1s. Payne.

27. The Mirror, pr. 1s. Owen.

28. The Laws of Bills of Exchange, &c. pr. 6s. Owen.

29. The Chemical Works of Galpar Neumann, M. D. Caſſon.

30. The Servant's Directory, pr. 5s. Johnſon.

31. The Duke de Belleſſe's Letters, &c. pr. 1s. 6d. Payne. (See p. 67.)

32. The Solicitor's Guide and Tradesman's Inſtructor, concerning Bankrupts, pr. 1s. 6d. Worral.

33. Reflections upon Good and Ill Luck, pr. 1s. 6d. Henderson.

ENTERTAINMENT, PORTICAL.

34. The Adventures of Ulyſſes, 2 vols. pr. 5s. Noble.

35. A new Atalantis for 1760, pr. 1s. 6d.

36. Love Feaſts, pr. 1s. Fleming.

37. The Auction, 2 Vols. price 6s. Lownds.

38. The Feaſt of Laughter, price 1s. Seymour.

39. Poems on Devotional Subjects, 2 Vols. pr. 6s. Buckland.

40. Phil and Harriet, a true Tale, pr. 6d. Morley.

41. The Life and Opinions of Trifram Shanby, 2 Vols. pr. 5s. Doddſley.

SERMONS.

42. On the Thankſgiving Day, before the Commons. By Dr. Dayrell, pr. 6d. Walter.

43. By Richard Price, pr. 6d. Millar.

44. By J. Williams, pr. 6d. Griffiths.

45. By Mr. Maſon, pr. 6d. Buckland.

46. By Mr. Obourne, pr. 6d. Owen.

47. By Mr. Harris, pr. 6d. E. Owen.

48. By Mr. Gilbert, pr. 6d. Buckland.

49. By Mr. Kippis, pr. 6d. Henderson.

50. By Mr. Winter, pr. 6d. Buckland.

51. By Mr. Ball, pr. 6d. ditto.

52. By Mr. Clarke, pr. 6d. Whifton and White.

53. By Mr. Hogg, pr. 6d. Buckland.

54. On Nov. 5. By Mr. Green, pr. 6d. Scott.

55. Two Volumes of Diſcourſes. By S. Bown, pr. 10s. 6d. Griffiths.

56. Diſcourſes on Happineſs. By Mr. Newman, 2 Vol. pr. 10s. Noon.

ANNUAL PUBLICATIONS.

57. Baldwin's Daily Journal, pr. 1s. 6d. Baldwin.

58. The Gentleman's New Memorandum Book, pr. 1s. 6d. Doddſley.

59. The Ladies ditto, pr. 1s. Doddſley.

60. The Court and City Register, pr. 2s. 9d. Hetch.

61. The London Pocket-Book, pr. 1s. 6d. Griffiths.

62. The Daily Memorandum-Book, pr. 1s. Pridden.

63. The Gentleman and Lady's Palladium, pr. 1s. Scott.

64. Sheſpey's Daily Journal, pr. 1s. 6d. Stevens.

65. The Ladies Complete Pocket-Book, pr. 1s. Newbery.

66. The Court and City Register, pr. 1s. Baldwin.

Appendix, 1759.

67. The Merchant's Directory, pr. 1s. 6d. Hope.

68. Complete Memorandum-Book, pr. 1s. 6d. Peller.

69. Scott's New Daily Journal, pr. 1s. 6d. Scott.

LIST of SHIPS taken from the French, continued from p. 400.

A Large Brigantine.

A Wentlow, from Bourdeaux, for Stock-

Hope, from Bourdeaux, for Gottenburg.

Beilons privateer, from St. Maloes, of 12

ſix pounders, 27 ſwivels, and 250 men.

A ſhip loaded with corn.

A ſhip, from Martinico, for Marſeilles.

La Nymphe privateer, of Granville, of 10

ſix pounders, and 160 men.

La Vengeur privateer, of 12 ſix pounders,

and 90 men.

A privateer ſnow, of Dunkirk, of 3 guns,

and 34 men.

A brig, from Martinico.

A coaſter, from Marſeilles.

King Solomon, Vitaul, from Dunkirk.

A ſloop, loaded with brandy and wine, from

Nantz.

An Eaſt-India ſhip, with bale goods and

coffee.

Mariz Agnes, from St. Domingo.

Fidelle, from Bourdeaux, with proviſions

for Canada.

A Dutch ſlip, 700 tons, loaded with flour

and ſtores, from Bourdeaux, for Canada.

A French letter of marque, burthen 300

tons, from Bourdeaux, for North America.

A Daniſh galliot, from Marſeilles, for Havre.

A ſloop loaded with proviſions.

St. John Baptiſt, for Marſeilles, with corn.

Hannah and Dorothy, from Frederickſhall,

for Bourdeaux.

St. Peter, from Norway, for St. Maloes.

Prince Edward, from Bayonne, for Stock-

holm.

Dukfuk, from Nantz, for Oſend.

Euſtasia, from Bourdeaux, for Gottenburg.

Anna Maria, from Bourdeaux, for Stock-

holm.

Paciſque, with coffee, &c. from the Eaſt

Indies, for Port L'Orient.

Groymond privateer, of St. Maloes, of 12

guns, and 55 men.

(To be continued.)

LIST of SHIPS taken by the French, continued from p. 400.

PRINCE Edward privateer of Guenſey.

Prince William, Hyndman, } From Glas-

Jefſe, Cunningham, } gow, for the

—, Duglaſs, } Leeward If-

Land.

Lawſon, Chamberlain, from Dublin for

Virginia.

William and Anne, Teverdale, from ditto.

A large Briſtol ſhip.

In proper manner to conclude,
 And in a way, (I hope) not rude;—
 The low church tribe, and rumpish rout,
 Unable quite to stand it out,
 Having with such a down-fall met,
 As sure they quickly can't forget,
 Got up at length, (a Jack-a-day)
 And, when they meanly flunk away,
 Behind 'em left,—(I'm apt to think)
 A most abominable stink!
 However,—let it not alarm
 God people,—whom it may not harm,
 But, if it should,—I understand,
 They've store of stink at hand.
 For, if the fore-said horrid smell,
 (And, what may happen none can tell)
 Shou'd an infection chance to raise,
 (Like many a nuisance now-a-days)
 The consequence they need not fear,
 Since several doctors, that are there,
 And have acquired much renown,
 Can purge and purify the town,
 The gentlemen and ladies too;
 A deal of good no doubt may do,
 In town and country both, who live
 And largely to oblige us give.
 The ladies deal in many a charm,
 The poor prevent from suffering harm,
 And can dispense, we may presume,
 Th' aforesaid, foul, infernal stink.
 The gentlemen of tenets pure
 Will help the malady to cure,
 The noxious vapours keep from spreading,
 And train up youth right paths to tread in.
 Their curbing thus the way and way,
 May dole deter from looking big,
 And, maugre presidential steams,
 Discourage quite their dirty schemes.
 But, if a spurious set of men
 Should want to play their tricks again,
 And persons of great worth provoke,
 May all such faithful honest folk,
 As would the common weal secure,
 Or have compassion on the poor,
 Or true religion really love,
 Or of good principles approve,
 Or with integrity abound,
 Conspiring warlets still confound,
 And now,—ye false combining brethren,
 Who gather off such droves together in,
 Foul matters secretly negotiate,
 And for such sorry ends associate;
 Ye strange ungovernable creatures,
 Of ugly correspondent features,
 As all good christians, (I suppose)
 Shou'd pray for their inverse fate,
 Therefore,—I'll bid you now farewell,
 And pray, that you may mend a deal.
 Then think not, Sirs! to knit your brows,
 Who cause so many spouses to bewail,
 But, as you've been so greatly used
 Grieve for your faults, and be amend.
 The things here wrote are well design'd,
 By one, to many much inclin'd
 And, (if they're rightly understood),
 Sincerely, for the country good.
 On which account you must excuse
 The free yet candid

Bills of Mortality from Nov. 20, to Jan. 1.

Christ.	Males 9327	1758	
	Femal. 8263		
Buried	Males 1430	1757	
	Femal. 1217		
Died under 2 Years old 185			
Between 2 and 5 — 330			
Between 5 and 10 — 122			
10 and 20 — 114			
20 and 30 — 142			
30 and 40 — 276			
40 and 50 — 275			
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Christened	Males 7294	Buried	Males 6999
	Females 6999		Females 6999
Increased in the Burials this Year 2028.			
Died under 2 Years of Age 185			
Between 2 and 5 — 330			
Between 5 and 10 — 122			
10 and 20 — 114			
20 and 30 — 142			
30 and 40 — 276			
40 and 50 — 275			
50 and 60 — 196			
60 and 70 — 188			
70 and 80 — 153			
80 and 90 — 69			
90 and 100 — 113			
2867			

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